DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 249 771 FL 014 595

AUTHOR Choi, Jae-Oh
TITLE A Contrastive Study of Korean and English Word Order.
PUB DATE May 84
NOTE 118p.; Master's Thesis, Roosevelt University.
PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Dissertations/Theses - Master Theses (042)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Comparative Analysis; *Contrastive Linguistics; *English; English (Second Language); Error Analysis (Language); *FLES; *Interference (Language); *Korean; Second Language Learning; *Sentence Structure; Standard Spoken Usage; Structural Grammar; Transformational Generative Grammar

ABSTRACT

A contrastive analysis of English and Korean sentences, including error analysis, is presented. The study focuses on word order, comparing the languages' similarities and differences with the objective of understanding better how the structural differences inhibit the progress of the Korean learner of English. The English data are derived from reference books and some colloquial expressions. The Korean data are drawn from the author's standard Korean dialect. The analysis begins with an outline of special features of Korean grammar and a definition of word order, and proceeds to parallel descriptions and discussion of the roles of modifiers and prepositions, basic sentence patterns, sentence types, the passive voice, introductory pronouns, numerical expressions, expressions of degree, some idiomatic expressions, and some passive and causative expressions in the two languages. Both structural and transformational approaches to the grammars are used in the comparison. It is concluded that structuralism is useful for the actual teaching material, and transformational-generative grammar is useful for analysis of the semantics of the sentence and its function, which are neglected in structuralism. The use of contrastive analysis for assisting Korean speakers in learning English is recommended in addition to continued exposure to real speaking situations in English. (MSE)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED249771

ROOSEVELT UNIVERSITY

A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF KOREAN AND ENGLISH WORD ORDER

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO

THE FACULTY OF THE COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES

IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF ARTS

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Jae-Oh Choi

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

BY

JAE-OH CHOI

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

MAY, 1984

FL014595

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am very grateful to Dr. Mary Lee Azawi, who supervised my thesis and kindly helped during the writing of the thesis.

I am also indebted to Dr. Dagna Simpson, who read earlier drafts and made insightful comments on my work.

My gratitude is also due to Dr. Douglas Stenerson for his warmhearted guidance through my academic career at Roosevelt University.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS----------ii

TABLE OF CONTENTS----------iii

Chapter

I. INTRODUCTION----------1

A. Scope and Purpose----------1

B. Methods and Procedures----------7

II CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF WORD ORDER IN KOREAN AND ENGLISH----------23

A. Special Features of Korean Grammar----------23

B. Definition of Word Order----------28

C. Modifiers----------29

D. Prepositions----------41

E. Basic Sentence Patterns----------44

F. Types of Sentences----------55

G. Passive Voice----------81

H. Introductory Pronouns----------84

I. Numerical Expressions----------88

J. Expressions of Degree----------91

K. Some Idiomatic Expressions----------93

L. Some Passive and Causative Constructions------95

III. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER STUDY-------104

BIBLIOGRAPHY----------110

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. Scope and Purpose

Language, among many other possible definitions, can be defined as a systematic structure in human speech activity. The structural signals may differ from one language to another because every language has its ideal system of sounds and characteristic grammatical system. Analyzing and mastering these structural signals are the bases for learning a second language.[1]

In this sense, contrastive analysis (CA) between two languages, both native and target language, provides valuable material not only for a teacher but also for a student in second or foreign language learning. As Fries mentions, "The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner."[2]

[1] H. A. Gleason, Jr., An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics (New York: Holt, 1965), p. 126, 149; Edward Sapir, Language: An Introduction To The Study Of Speech (New York: Harcourt, 1921, renewed 1949 by Jean V. Sapir), p. 56.

[2] Charles C. Fries, Teaching And Learning English As A Foreign Language (Ann Arbor: The Univ. of Michigan Press, 1945, renewed 1973 by Mrs. Charles C. Fries), p. 9.

Regarding the value of contrastive study Lado states;

> --- we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty, by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learned with the native language and culture of the student.[3]

Gleason says that a contrastive grammar is not a teaching device but a tool in the preparation of teaching materials;[4] however, "a careful contrastive analysis of the two languages offers an excellent basis for the preparation of instructional materials, the planning of courses, and the development of actual classroom techniques."[5] Likewise CA should be initiated with regard to theoretical implications and also for its pedagogical worth.[6]

The aim of CA is to predict the errors that cause interference in the course of transfer from L_1 to L_2 and it will therefore provide a scientific basis for the development of teaching material. Another objective is to explain the actually observed interference phenomena. This approach takes the opposite direction from the former: it starts with the evidence provided by linguistic interference and tries to explain the similarities and differences between the two

[3] Robert Lado, Linguistics Across Cultures (Ann Arbor: The Univ. of Michigan Press, 1957), p. vii.

[4] Gleason, p. 208.

[5] Charles A. Ferguson, "General Introduction to The Series," to William G. Moulton, The Sounds of English and German (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1962), p. v.

[6] Robert J. Di Pietro, Language Structures In Contrast (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1971), p. 12.

language systems using the evidence of errors in order to account for the difficulties in second language learning. The first approach is, as Wardhaugh says, a strong version of CA, which he claims to be unrealistic and impracticable, while the second approach only, a weak version of CA as Wardhaugh says, can become a useful tool in language learning.[7]

Over the controversial criticism that contrastive linguistics (CL) is merely a part of applied linguistics, there is strong assertion that this idea stems from a misunderstanding as well as from ignorance of the history of CL and of the development in this field in Europe.[8] Others charge that CA lacks predictive power for errors. But the scholars who are against CA are told that they have not explained why CA cannot predict errors.[9] Instead Patnaik stresses the importance of CA:

> --- CA is in a way inevitable because (a) not many today are likely to deny that mother tongue interference is a major source of errors in foreign language learning and (b) no one as far as I know,

[7] Ronald Wardhaugh, "The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis," in New Frontiers In Second Language Learning, ed. John H. Schumann and Nancy Stenson (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1974), pp. 12-15; Wilga M. Rivers and Mary S. Temperley, A Practical Guide To The Teaching Of English As A Second or Foreign Language (New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1978), p. 151.

[8] Jacek Fisiak, "Introduction," in Theoretical Issues In Contrastive Linguistics, ed. Jacek Fisiak (Amsterdam: John Benjamins B.V., 1980), p. 1.

[9] Anwar Mohamed Sami, The Grammatical Theory Of Contrastive Analysis: A New Approach, Diss. Ohio State 1973 (Ann Arbor: Univ. Microfilms, 1983), pp. 1-2.

> has yet come up with a satisfactory alternative to CA for dealing with errors arising out of L_1 interference. --- CA will continue to be extremely useful for error analysis and language teaching.[10]

In order to meet certain criteria and to meet all of the goals in CA, Whitman suggests four steps: description, selection, contrast, prediction.[11]

CA having become controversial because its critics say that it cannot be expected to account for all sources of difficulty and errors such as native-language interference,[12] error analysis (EA) has been developed for the explanation of these errors.[13] While some proponents of each type of analysis bitterly denounce the other approach, many realize that they can be used to complement each other. After all, "CA and EA have in common the function of explaining learners' errors."[14] Richards defines EA as follows:

[10] B. N. Patnaik, Contrastive Analysis and Its Pedagogic Implications, CIEFL Bulletin: n12 p15-28 (1976), (ERIC ED 187 124), p. 9.

[11] Ronald L. Whitman, "Contrastive Analysis: Problems and Procedures," Language Learning, 20, No. 2 (Dec. 1970), pp. 191-97.

[12] Rivers and Temperley, p. 151; John H. Schumann and Nancy Stenson, "Introduction," in New Frontiers In Second Language Learning, ed. John H. Schumann and Nancy Stenson (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1974), p. 2.

[13] Harvey M. Taylor, "Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis in Current Language Teaching," in English and Japanese in Contrast, ed. Harvey M. Taylor (New York: Regents, 1979), p. 11; Wendee Olivia Smith Rogers, A Survey of Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis, Thesis, Florida Atlantic 1980 (Ann Arbor: Univ. Microfilms, 1983), pp. 22-23.

[14] Arthur Hughes, Problems in Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis (1980), (ERIC ED 192 573), p. 2.

> The field of error analysis may be defined as dealing with the differences between the way people learning a language speak, and the way adult native speakers of the language use the language.[15]

The aim of EA is systematic description, analysis and explanation of errors that are caused by negative interference. The errors transferred to a target language can be used as evidence of the linguistic organization of the learner's native language and give us evidence of his competence in the target language learning. Such information is important for the planning of courses and the preparation of teaching materials.[16] While the description and analysis of learning modalities and strategies will help with the development of teaching procedures, EA can be one means by which the teacher assesses learning and teaching language and determines priorities for future effort.[17] In short, the goal of EA will be achieved if errors are systematically analyzed and are used as evidence of second language strategies.

It is now certain that CA and EA are complementary but

[15] Jack C. Richards, "Error Analysis and Second Language Strategies," in New Frontiers In Second Language Learning, ed. John H. Schumann and Nancy Stenson (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1974), p. 32.

[16] Stig Johansson, "The Use of Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis," English Language Teaching Journal, 29, No. 2 (Jan., 1975), p. 248.

[17] Jack C. Richards and Gloria P. Sampson, "The Study of Learner English," in Error Analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition, ed. Jack C. Richards (London: Longman, 1974), p. 15.

not incompatible with one another in that they are both of value as error correction implements in second language learning.

This thesis presents a contrastive analysis between English and Korean sentences and includes error analysis comments on most of the points that are examined. Because of the many fundamental differences in the surface structure of the English and Korean sentences, it is difficult for the average Korean learner of English to become fluent in the use of English. For that reason, this thesis will analyze word order in the two languages, comparing their similarities and their differences with a view toward a better understanding of how these two languages are structured.

The order of the words in a sentence is an important device for showing grammatical or structural relationships in English. The same words in the following two sentences convey totally different meanings according to their order:

1. The car hit the boy.

2. The boy hit the car.

On the other hand, Korean sentence structure is not as fixed as the English. Shifts of word order do not change meaning as long as we do not consider emphasis:

3. na nun nuh lul salang ha nun ta. 'I love you.'

4. nuh lul na nun salang ha nun ta. 'I love you.'

The above examples show that the meaning in Korean sentences is changed not by word order as in English but by the function word, the so-called particle. The remarkable

differences between English and Korean sentences make learning English difficult for Korean learners.

One of the major goals of learning a target language is to gain phatic function in it--the ability of a speaker to start, prolong, change topics or to discontinue conversation;[18] and understanding its structural system is one of the important bases for learning that function.

In this respect, the contrastive analysis of English and Korean word order and error analysis will help Korean learners of English step toward phatic communication.

B. Method and Procedures

1. Sources of Data

The English data presented in this thesis are mostly from the reference books that I quote and from some colloquial expressions. The Korean data are mainly from the writer's dialect, which is standard Korean spoken by the majority of the middle class in and around Seoul, the capital of Korea. There are five styles of speech in Korean: formal, polite, familiar, intimate and plain speech.[19] I

[18] Mary Finocchiaro, English As A Second Language: From Theory To Practice (New York: Regents, 1974), p. 190; Christina Bratt Paulston and Mary Newton Bruder, Teaching English As A Second Language: Techniques and Procedures (Cambridge: Winthrop, 1976), p. 29.

[19] Kil-Lok Lee, Kwukuh Mwunpuhp Yunkwu 'A Study of Korean Grammar,' (Seoul, Korea: Ilsinsa, 1981), p. 200, 299.

have used the plain speech of the standard Korean language.

2. Theoretical Orientation

In studying the differences in word order between Korean and English sentences, I have used the contrastive method based on structural grammar. Structuralism begins with observed language data and classifies these data into levels of structure for the purpose of description.[20] It describes linguistic features in terms of structures and systems.

Structural analysis, in which each language is regarded as a system of coherent, homogeneous entities--the elements such as sounds, words, etc.,[21] may reveal some problems in contrasting two languages that belong to different families. Compare the following:

5. I had my hair cut at (a) barbershop.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

   na nun ibalso esuh muhli lul kkak ass ta.
   I SM barbershop Loc hair OM cut Pt Dec

   na-nun ibalso-esuh muhri-rul kkak-at-ta.[22]
   1 8 6 4 5

These two sentences show differences in syntactic

[20] L. Ben Crane, et al., An Introduction to Linguistics (Boston: Little, Brown And Co., 1981), p. 34.

[21] John Lyons, Introduction To Theoretical Linguistics (London: Cambridge Univ. Press, 1968), p. 50; Mario Pei and Frank Gaynor, Dictionary of Linguistics (New York: Philosophical Library, 1954), p. 205.

[22] For numbering, parentheses and hyphens see pp. 9-10, for Romanization of Korean words see pp. 11-13, for abbreviations see pp. 13-15.

components. The subject of the Korean sentence is the actor, whereas the subject is the receiver in the English sentence in surface structure. In some sentences there are different modes of expression between the two language systems. Korean uses the active voice, even though the subject cannot cut his hair himself. Accordingly, some Koreans are apt to say, I cut my hair at a barbershop instead of I had my hair cut at a barbershop. This kind of sentence cannot be compared with basic English sentence patterns. For this, I have taken a transformational approach to the analysis and comparison of word order in Korean and English in addition to structural analysis. The structural approach is effective for producing classroom teaching material and the transformational approach is useful for analysis of underlying sentence structure. In this way, I hope to pinpoint specific problems the Korean language learner confronts when attempting to learn English, and to make recommendations as to how these problems may be overcome.

3. Conventions

a. Format in Citation Sentences

Example sentences are numbered serially throughout the thesis and the numbers are underlined, e.g., 1, 2, 3 and the like. The first sentence is the English version. The Korean stated right after the English is a transliteration of the English version and the next one is a morphophonemic form. Although a hyphen in the morphophonemic form suggests the Korean word boundary in the transcription of English ortho-

graphy, "the boundary is phonologically insignificant: i.e., the boundary is deleted in the phonological component[23] of the grammar."[24]

The constitution of the minimum free form and bound form in a Korean sentence is as follows:

6. jindallae-nun pwulg-un kkoch-i-da.[25] 'The azalea is a red flower.'
   f f b b b f f b b

where f stands for a free form and b a bound form.

The morphemes or words in parentheses indicate that they appear only in English. Thus the article a in the example sentence 5 occurs in English but not in Korean. Korean does not have the grammatical category of the English articles the, a and an. These are found in demonstratives rather than in determiners for their counterpart in Korean.[26] Those words in parentheses in the Korean sentences are optional.

[23] The grammar which forms the basis of the presentation in this thesis assumes that grammar is composed of three components: a phonological, a morphological, and a syntactic component.

[24] Paul T. Sato, "Adjectives and Copula in Korean," in Papers In Korean Linguistics, Proc. of the Symposium on Korean Linguistics, 18-20 Aug. 1977, Univ. of Hawaii, ed. Chin-Woo Kim (Columbia: Hornbeam, 1978), p. 187.

[25] K-L Lee, p. 156.

[26] In-Seok Yang, Korean Syntax: Case Markers, Delimiters, Complementation, And Relativization, Diss. Hawaii n.d. (Seoul, Korea: Kwang Mwun Sa, 1972), p. 11; Harold S. Chu and Young-Hee Park, A Contrastive Analysis between Korean and English for ESL Teachers (Arlington, Va: Arlington County Public Schools, 1978), (ERIC ED 191 300), p. 37.

b. Romanization

In representing Korean words in English, I have used the following symbols listed below. They represent an eclectic selection from recognized systems such as the Yale system, the McCune-Reischauer system, the Lukoff system and the ROK Ministry of Education system.[27] The selections were made for one of two reasons. The first is to more accurately represent the sound as it is articulated in Korean; the second is for ease of production on an English language typewriter.

Hankul symbols	Transliteration symbols
ㄱ	k, g
ㄲ	kk
ㄴ	n
ㄷ	t, d
ㄸ	tt
ㄹ	l, r
ㅁ	m
ㅂ	p, b
ㅃ	pp
ㅅ	s
ㅆ	ss

[27] See the following for each system: Samuel E. Martin, et al., A Korean-English Dictionary (New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 1967), p. xv; Samuel E. Martin and Young-Sook C. Lee, Beginning Korean (New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 1969), p. 575; Swun Yong Kwuhn, "On New Romanization," The Joong-ang Daily News (Seoul, Korea), Chicago Ed., 17 Jan. 1984, p. 3, col. 1.

ㅇ	-ng
ㅈ	j
ㅉ	jj
ㅊ	ch
ㅋ	kh
ㅌ	th
ㅍ	ph
ㅎ	h
ㅏ	a
ㅑ	ya
ㅓ	uh
ㅕ	yuh
ㅗ	o
ㅛ	yo
ㅜ	wu
ㅠ	yu
ㅡ	u
ㅣ	i
ㅔ	e
ㅖ	ye
ㅐ	ae
ㅒ	yae
ㅟ	ui
ㅢ	wi
ㅚ	oe
ㅘ	wa
ㅝ	wuh

ㅙ wae

ㅞ wue

Unlike English, Korean does not begin a sentence with a capital letter; therefore, in this presentation, Korean sentences start with a small letter except for a proper name.

c. Abbreviations and Symbols

The following abbreviations are used for grammatical morphemes.

Acc = Accusative case

Act = Active voice

Afx = Affix

Aj = Adjective

AM = Adjective marker

Aux = Auxiliary verb

Av = Adverb

b = bound form

be = be verb

Bf = Base final or ending

CA = Contrastive analysis

Caus = Causative marker or sentence

CL = Contrastive Linguistics

Comp = Complementizer

Cop = Copula

Dat = Dative case

Dec = Declarative ending

Det = Determiner

D-Structure = Deep Structure = Underlying Structure

ESL = English as a Second Language

f = free form

Fut = Future tense

IL = Interlanguage

Imp = Imperative ending

Inf = Infinitive

Int = Interrogative ending

InV = Intransitive verb

L_1 = First language

L_2 = Second language

LV = Linking verb

N = Noun

Neg = Negative ending

NL = Native language

NM = Nominative marker

NP = Noun phrase

O = Object

OM = Object marker

Pass = Passive voice

Pl = Plural

PP = Prepositional phrase

Poss = Possessive

Pres = Present tense

Prog = Progressive form

Pt = Past tense

Rel Pron = Relative Pronoun

S = Subject

SM = Subject marker

Sg = Singular

Ta = Tense aspect

TG = Transformational Grammar

TL = Target language

Tns = Tense

Top = Topic particle

TrV = Transitive verb

V = Verb

Va = Action verb

Vd = Description verb

Voc = Vocative

VP = Verb phrase

Symbols

--> = becomes, equals or is stated as

/ = in the environment of

* = forms or sentences which are impossible or unnatural

d. Terminology

The following are, in alphabetical order, definitions of useful terms which I have used in the thesis.

Competence and Performance: Competence refers to a person's knowledge of his language and his ability to produce and understand an infinite range of sentences. Performance is a person's actual use of language in a concrete

situation.[28]

Complementizer or Complementizing morpheme (Comp): In generative syntax, Comp refers to clause-introducing particles like that which mark an embedded sentence of a complement type, e.g., I told him that I was bored with it.[29] Rosenbaum discusses four more complementizers: for, to, Poss, ing,[30] e.g.,

I dislike arguing about silly matters.

I saw John's car.

He ordered the letter to be read.

I prefer for you to do it.

In Korean, Yang[31] refers to the V-Comp, N-Comp, Suspect-Comp and Appositive Comp, e.g.,

John-un ku-ga pabo-i-ra-go saenggak-ha-n-da.
'John think that he is fool.'

John-i kimchi-rul muhg-uh po-at-ta.
'John tried to eat Kimchi.'

Determiner: A term which refers to a class of items which

[28] Noam Chomsky, Aspects Of The Theory Of Syntax (Cambridge: The M.I.T. Press, 1965), p. 4; Frank Smith and George A. Miller, "Introduction," in The Genesis of Language: A Psycholinguistic Approach, ed. Frank Smith and George A. Miller (Cambridge: The M.I.T. Press, 1966), p. 4; Di Pietro, pp. 19-20.

[29] Andrew Radford, Transformational Syntax: A Student's Guide to Chomsky's Extended Standard Theory (London: Cambridge Univ. Press, 1981), p. 105; David Crystal, A First Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics (Boulder, Colorado: Westview, 1980), p. 74.

[30] Peter S. Rosenbaum, The Grammar of English Predicate Complement Constructions (Cambridge: The M.I.T. Press, 1967), p. 24.

[31] I-S Yang, p. 13, 116.

precedes the noun to express a wide range of semantic contrasts, such as quantity or number, e.g., a, an, the, my, your, his, this, that, John's, etc.[32]

Dummy or Formal Subject: a. Impersonal It = When expressing weather conditions or time, the meaningless it serves as a formal subject. b. Expletive, anticipatory, preparatory or initial it, there = Where the subject is an emphatic noun, there(or it) is used as a formal subject, or there (or it) is used as a meaningless slot-filler in the subject position before the verb. c. Situation It = Generally points to some noun which was not previously identified to be referred to by a personal pronoun as it in It is Aunt Flo.[33]

Fossilization: A mechanism(or permanent characteristics) of the speech of bilinguals which is assumed to exist in the latent psychological structure, i.e., an already formulated arrangement in the brain. It underlies surface linguistic material which speakers will tend to keep in their IL productive performance irrespective of the age of the learner or the amount of instruction in the TL. Fossilizable structures tend to remain as potential performance,

[32] Crystal, p. 108; Norman C. Stageburg, An Introductory English Grammar, 4th ed. (New York: Holt, 1981), pp. 173-74.

[33] George O. Curme, Syntax (Boston, 1931; rpt. Tokyo: Maruzen, Japanese Calendar 47), pp. 9-10; Paul Roberts, Understanding Grammar (New York: Harper & Row, 1954), pp. 251-53; Stageburg, pp. 297-98; R. W. Zandvoort, A Handbook Of English Grammar (London, 1962; rpt. Tokyo: Maruzen, 1969), p. 197, 223.

reemerging in the productive performance of an IL even when seemingly eradicated.[34]

Interlanguage (IL): The speech output resulting from a speaker's attempt to produce a foreign norm, both his errors and nonerrors, in a second language is called an IL. Such behavior is assumed to be highly structured.[35]

Language universal: The assumption that human languages all have in common general features or certain notional categories, i.e., a general framework and a number of grammatical processes. Universal grammar is an abstraction containing all processes and forms which are vital to the general theory of language.[36]

Morphophoneme: A basic unit that represents alternating phonemes. It is usually symbolized by the use of a capital letter within brace brackets, e.g., {F}, {T}. One of the examples is the alternation between /f/ + /v/, such as knife : knives.[37]

Changes in the phonemic form of allomorphs as they are

[34] Richards in Schumann and Stenson, pp. 35-6; Larry Selinker, "Interlanguage," in New Frontiers In Second Language Learning, ed. John H. Schumann and Nancy Stenson (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1974), pp. 118-19: "Language Transfer," General Linguistics, 9, No. 2 (1969), p. 131.

[35] Richards in Schumann and Stenson, p. 35; Selinker in General Linguistics, p. 71.

[36] Di Pietro, p. 4, 22; Lyons, p. 270; Noam Chomsky, Syntactic Structures (The Hague: Mouton, 1957), p. 5.

[37] Crane, et al., p. 75; Crystal, p. 233.

grouped into words, or as they appear in different forms of a word in a particular environment are called morphophonemic changes, e.g.,

calf /kæf/ : calves /kævz/

sing /sɪŋ/ : sang /sæŋ/ [38]

Overgeneralization: In language acquisition, error occurs whereby a child extends his use of a grammatical feature to some inappropriate contexts: *goed, *goned. In second language learning, error happens by extension of target language rules to areas where they do not apply: *this regions, *He say, *He don't.[39]

Particle: An invariable and uninflected item used to indicate syntactical relationships, especially a word which does not come within the category of a standard part of speech. In English, the marker of the infinitive, to, is often called a particle, because it has nothing to do with a preposition or any other word class. Most of the particles are place adjuncts such as "The children were sitting down."[40] For Korean particles, see pp. 23-24.

Phatic function of language: A function of communication in which the speaker demonstrates the ability to introduce,

[38] Zellig S. Harris, Structural Linguistics (Chicago: The Univ. Of Chicago Press, 1951), p. 225; Stageburg, p. 135.

[39] Crystal, p. 252; Schumann and Stenson in Schumann and Stenson, p. 5; Richards in Schumann and Stenson, p. 37.

[40] Pei and Gaynor, p. 161; Crystal, p. 258; Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum, A Concise Grammar of Contemporary English (New York: Harcourt, 1973), p. 347.

prolong, change topics or to discontinue conversation. Phatic communication refers to language used for establishing an atmosphere and maintaining social contact.[41]

Proposative (or Propositive) sentences: In this thesis, proposative sentences refer to the sentences with the imperative *let* which is used in desires and exhortations, and with verbs of suggestion or proposal such as *suggest*, *propose*.[42]

Transfer and Interference: Transfer is the process in foreign language learning whereby learners carry over the particular system (phonetic and grammatical) of their NL to their performance in their TL. Interference refers to the mistakes that result from this process.[43] There are three kinds of transfer: positive transfer, in which the two languages have features in common; negative transfer, in which the two language systems are not similar; and zero or neutral transfer, in which there is no statistically significant predominance in the NL and TL. Positive transfer does not create errors; negative transfer creates errors in the new response; zero or neutral transfer may

[41] Finocchiaro, p. 5, 190; Paulston and Bruder, p. 29; Crystal, p. 264; Lyons, p. 417.

[42] Hong-Bae Lee, *A Study Of Korean Syntax: Performatives, Complementation, Negation, and Causation* (Seoul, Korea: Pan Korea, 1970), pp. 81-6; Chungmin Lee, "Negative Imperatives in Korean," in *Papers In Korean Linguistics*, ed. Chin-Woo Kim (Columbia: Hornbeam, 1978), p. 187.

[43] Di Pietro, p. 6; Crystal, p. 188, 362.

cause either a nonerror when the linguistic entity occurs with an established norm of that TL or an error when it deviates from that norm. In second or foreign language learning, however, the cases of negative transfer are more important.[44]

4. Organization

The order of analysis and discussion in this thesis proceeds as follows.

First, basic points are examined for ease of understanding in the presentation of sentences. The first section is for elements of the Korean sentence which have no direct counterpart in English such as particle, verbal suffix and two kinds of verbs. The second section deals with the general characteristics of word order in English and Korean.

Next, basic sentence forms and their elements are discussed to contrast the word order of English and Korean. The first section deals with basic sentence elements such as modifiers and prepositions. The second section handles basic sentence patterns based on Stageburg's classification.[45] The third section treats types of sentences from simple to complex.

Finally, phrase and sentence level constructions which

[44] Crystal, p. 362; Robert P. Stockwell and J. Donald Bowen, Sound Systems In Conflict: A Hierarchy Of Difficulty (Chicago: The Univ. of Chicago Press, 1965), p. 9; Selinker in General Linguistics, p. 91.

[45] Stageburg, pp. 198-212.

deserve special consideration because of 1) their distinctiveness in either language, 2) their complexity for the analyst, or 3) their difficulty for the Korean language learner are examined. Included here are discussions of passive voice, introductory pronouns, numerical expressions, expressions of degree, some idiomatic expressions, and some passive and causative constructions in that order.

CHAPTER II

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF WORD ORDER IN KOREAN AND ENGLISH

A. Special Features of Korean Grammar

Before taking up the main subject, I would like to briefly clarify some basic points in the description of the Korean sentence.

1. Particle

The Korean nominal commonly combines with the so-called particle and the particle after a noun specifies a grammatical function of the noun and the rest of the sentence, much as prepositions do in English.[1] Different from English prepositions, articles and auxiliary verbs, the Korean particle is dependent on its head noun and is generally considered not an independent word but an adjunct.[2] Consider the following:

7. Tom call(s) Mary.
   1 2 3 4

7-a. Tom-i Mary lul pwulu nun ta.
   SM OM call Pres Dec

[1] J-S Suh, Kwukuh Kwumwun Non Yuhnkwu 'A Study of Korean Syntax' (Seoul, Korea: Thap, 1978), p. 39; hereafter cited as Kwukuh Kwumwun Non; Martin and Lee, p. 6.

[2] K-L Lee, p. 175.

Tom-i Mary-rul pwuru-n-da.
1 4 2

7-b. Mary-rul Tom-i pwuru-n-da.
4 1 2

8. Mary call(s) Tom.
1 2 3 4

8-a. Tom ul Mary ka pwulu nun ta.
OM SM call Pres Dec

Tom-ul Mary-ga pwuru-n-da.
4 4 2

8-b. Mary-ga Tom-ul pwuru-n-da.
1 4 2

The order of the words in a sentence provides an important device to show grammatical or structural relationships in English.[3] In Korean, on the other hand, the particle plays a rather more significant role than word order. The above examples show that the particle changes the meaning of a sentence without shifting word order. The subject particles i and un follow nouns which end with a consonant; ka and nun follow those which end with a vowel.[4] The object particle ul comes after a noun that ends in a consonant and lul after an object that ends with a vowel.

2. Verb

[3] Charles C. Fries, American English Grammar (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1940), p. 247; hereafter cited as Am. English.

[4] H-B Lee, p. 111: The formative un, nun is called the Topic particle, which marks its noun as the sentence topic and frequently substitutes for the SM. In this thesis, I will treat un, nun as SM following H-B Lee. For more on this, see Martin and Lee, p. 14; Joe Jung-No Ree, Some Aspects of Korean Syntax, Diss. Indiana 1969 (Ann Arbor: Univ. Microfilms, 1983), p. 6.

a. Verb Marker

The verb marker in Korean statements is final ta. The Korean verb consists of stem plus tense marker plus verb marker in that order. The tense marker and the verb marker are the affixes of the verb.[5] For example, the verb ka 'go' is conjugated as follows:

Infinitive	Present	Past	Future
to go	go(es)	went	will go
ka ta go Bf	ka nun ta go Pres Bf	ka ass ta go Pt Bf	ka kess ta go Fut Bf
ka-da	ka-n-da	ka-t-ta	ka-get-ta

b. Two Kinds of Verbs

There are two kinds of verbs in Korean: action verbs (Va) and description verbs (Vd). An action verb is easily translated by the English verb. An action verb ends in (nu)n ta as po nun ta (po-n-da) 'see' and a description verb in ta like ttatus ha ta (ttadut-ha-da) 'is warm' in the present tense.[6] In the case of an English predicate adjective, the idea in Korean is expressed by what is usually called a description verb. This is an adjective stem to which is suffixed a tense marker plus a verb marker. Consider the following:

[5] J-S Suh, Kwukuh Kwumwun Non, pp. 39-40:
Afx ---> Ta + Bf
where Afx = Affix, Ta = Tense aspect, Bf = Base final or ending; p. 49:
Bf --> nun ta or ta/Pres

[6] ibid, p. 50.

9-a. (a) tall boy
1 2 3

(khi) khu un sonyuhn[7]
height tall AM boy

(khi) khu-n sonyuhn
2 3

9-b. The boy is tall.
1 2 3 4

ku sonyuhn i (khi ka) khu ta.
the boy SM height SM tall Dec

ku-sonyuhn-i (khi-ga) khu-da.
1 2 4

We can see the adjective in 9-a is used as an attributive and the one in 9-b as a predicative.[8] When this Vd is compared with the English predicative adjective the problem of whether it has a copula in it or not occurs. Let us examine the following sentence:

10. She is beautiful.
1 2 3

ku nyuh nun yeppu ta.
the woman SM beautiful Dec

ku-nyuh-nun yeppu-da.
1 3

The Korean copula base is i and it does not appear between Vd and Bf. Di Pietro mistakes the declarative verbal

[7] I will mark an AM for an adjective modifier followed by -(u)n in order to contrast with a Vd.

[8] Quirk and Greenbaum, p. 115: The major syntactic functions of adjectives are attributive and predicative. The former are used as prenominal modifiers, the latter as subject complements or object complements.

ending ta for a copula.[9] If we consider the copula a Vd that has the base i after a consonant and zero after a vowel[10] or follow Sato's contention that the Korean "Adjectives are, by definition, non-substantivized: hence they did not originally take any case affix, and was immediately followed by the copula (whose phonological shape was zero) and the conjugational ending,"[11] we might conclude that the Vd yeppu ta contains a zero copula in its constituent. To put it in another way, the adjective base yeppu and the zero copula with a verb marker ta becomes the Vd yeppu ta 'is beautiful.' However, it is unjustifiable to see the copula as a kind of adjective.[12] I admit that Sato's point is plausible, but I don't think there is need to establish a zero copula in a Vd which ends with a verb marker ta because "adjectives in Korean and Japanese are verbal" and they conjugate.[13] Since my thesis deals mainly with surface structure, I will not accept a zero copula in Vd in this thesis. Of course, a zero copula exists in a Korean noun when it ends with a vowel:

11. He is (a) rich man.
    1 2 3 4 5

[9] Di Pietro, p. 81.

[10] Samuel E. Martin, Korean Morphophonemics (Baltimore: Linguistic Society of America, 1954), p. 17.

[11] Sato in C-W Kim, p. 189.

[12] Ul-Hwan Lee, et al., Kwukuh Hak Sinkang 'New Korean Lecture,' (Seoul, Korea: Kaemwun Sa, 1981), p. 174; cf. p. 56, 60 in this thesis.

[13] Sato in C-W Kim, p. 185.

ku (namja) nun pwuja (i) ta.
the man SM rich-man Cop Dec

ku-(namja)-nun pwuja-(i)-da.
1 4, 5 2

where 2 is normally deleted in Korean.

B. Definition of Word Order

> Word order is the arrangement of words in a sentence, clause, or phrase to convey meaning. Some languages have relatively free word order: Meaning is not changed by a change in the position of a word (unless an emphasis is considered). Other languages have relatively fixed word order: Meaning is changed or is not conveyed when the position of a word is changed.[14]

The Korean language belongs to the former group, the English language to the latter.

In Korean sentences, verbs that are inflected words come at the end, and "the order of the various parts is determined not by grammatical function, as it is in English, but by importance."[15] That is, the item which is stressed is placed first. e.g., kwunin-i-da ku-nun 'a soldier-is he.' The sentence final particle tells the type of a sentence without changing the order of words:

12-a. ku-nun kwunin-i-da. 'He is (a) soldier.'

12-b. ku-nun kwunin-i-nya? 'Is he (a) soldier?'

[14] Thomas L. Crowell, Jr., Index To Modern English (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964), p. 423.

[15] Martin and Lee, p. 6.

In English sentences, "the word order gives the key to the right understanding"[16] because "The order of the words as they stand in a sentence has become for Modern English an important device to show grammatical or structural relationships. This device, word order, has, in English, especially since the fourteenth century, been in competition with the other devices, word forms or inflections and function words, for the expression of certain grammatical ideas."[17] Consider the following:

13-a. Mary saw John at the theater.

13-b. John saw Mary at the theater.

13-c. *Mary John at the theater saw.

13-d. *Mary saw at the theater John.

An * represents ungrammatical or unnatural language.

As we see above, in English, shifts in basic word order affect the meaning of the sentence or make a sentence unclear.

C. Modifiers

1. Preposed Adjective

a. Single Modifier

English single-word modifiers usually precede the

[16] Otto Jesperson, Essentials of English Grammar (Alabama: Univ. of Alabama, 1964), p. 99.

[17] Fries, Am.English, p. 247.

head noun in a modification structure[18] and the same is true of Korean adjectives.

14. (a) red flower
1 2 3

ppalka un kkoch
red AM flower

ppalga-n kkot
2 3

Although Korean word order is fairly flexible, the modifier does not follow the head noun as in *kkot ppalga-n.

b. Multiple Modifier

In English and Korean, the pattern of multiple modifiers is similar.

> When more than one modifier precedes a noun, the order of those modifiers is relatively fixed. The reason is that the modifiers do not modify the same thing: the modifier closest to the head-word noun modifies that noun; the immediately preceding modifier modifies not just the noun but the nominal construction composed of the noun and the closest modifier; that process may be repeated over and over.[19]

15. Laundry machines are expensive.
1 2 3 4 5

sethak kike tul un pissa ta.
laundry machine Pl SM expensive Dec

sethak kige-dur-un pissa-da.
1 2 3 5

As laundry modifies the head noun machines in English, sethak modifies its head noun kike in Korean.

[18] Lado, p. 60.

[19] Crowell, Jr., p. 428.

16. Electric laundry machines are expensive.
1 2 3 4 5 6

juhnki sethak kike tul un pissa ta.
electric laundry machine Pl SM expensive Dec

juhngi sethak kige-dur-un pissa-da.
1 2 3 4 6

Electric modifies the nominal construction laundry machines as juhnki modifies sethak kike tul.

17. Automatic electric laundry machines are expensive.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

jatong juhnki sethak kike tul un pissa
automatic electric laundry machine Pl SM expensive

ta
Dec

jadong juhngi sethak kige-dur-un pissa-da.
1 2 3 4 5 7

Automatic modifies the nominal construction electric laundry machines. Korean uses the same order.

A certain English preposed adjective finds its counterpart in the position of adverbial complements in Korean such as in 18-a:

18. Pete ate all (the) pie.
1 2 3 4 5

18-a. Pete nun phai lul motwu muhk uhss ta.
SM pie OM all(Adv) eat Pt Dec

Pete-nun phai-rul modwu muhg-uht-ta.
1 5 3 2

Compare 18-a with 18-b:

18-b. Pete nun motun phai lul muhk uhss ta.
SM all pie OM eat Pt Dec

Pete-nun modun phai-rul muhg-uht-ta.
1 3 5 2

The adjective all can be used as a preposed modifier in

a Korean sentence as in 18-b. However, the example in 18-a is a more natural and common expression. The appropriation of an adjectival for adverbial use is likely to be similar to the employment of an adverbial complement for the English adjectival complement as appeared in Sentence Pattern 4 on page 45.

c. Error Analysis

The principal point for error analysis would be laid on the production problem rather than on recognition.

It goes without saying that the foreign language learner tends to transfer his native language system in the process--the sentence forms, modification devices, the number, gender, and case patterns of his native language.[20]

Korean learners of English might say the wrong form *red flower one, or *red flower, without the indefinite article as in 14. Korean lacks articles which occur in English,[21] so they will produce *Pete ate all pie for the example 18, providing they use the right word order; otherwise they might say *Pete all pie ate, applying Korean order. Another possibility is that they would say *Pete ate pie all, referring the all to an adverbial complement as indicated in 18.

2. Postposed Adjective

[20] Lado, p. 11, 58.

[21] For beginning Korean learners of English, Do you have time? and Do you have the time? would take time to be distinguished.

a. Different Word Order for Korean and English

Adjectives sometimes follow the nouns they modify in English, while they precede nouns in Korean.

(1) Indefinite Pronoun

Indefinite pronouns ending in -thing, -body, -one, -where can be followed by an adjectival.

19. something nice
1 2 3

(uhttuhn) joh un kuhs
some nice AM thing

(uhttuhn) jo-un-guht
1 3 2

(2) Ordinal and Cardinal Numbers

When an ordinal number is used, it is preposed and a cardinal numeral is postpositive in English, whereas both of them are preposed in Korean.

20. (the) third chapter
1 2 3

je sam jang
number three chapter

je-sam-jang
2 3

21. chapter three
1 2

sam jang
three chapter

sam-jang
2 1

The case of The First World War, World War One and the third page, page three is the same as in examples 20 and 21.

(3) Title

A title with a name comes first in English and comes at the end in Korean.

22. Mr. Brown
1 2

Brown suhnsaeng
1 2

23. President Lincoln
1 2

Lincoln taethongyuhng
2 1

(4) Reduced Relative Clause in English

A participle which is used restrictively may follow the noun it modifies. This postposed adjective can be regarded as a reduced relative clause[22] in English, whereas it is still an attributive which precedes its head noun in Korean.

24. The boy elected was my brother.
1 2 3 4 5 6

tangsuhn toe un[23] ku sonyuhn un na ui tongsaeng i
elect Pass Pt the boy SM I Poss brother be

uhss ta.
Pt Dec

tangsuhn-doe-n ku-sonyuhn-un na-i tongsaeng-i-uht-ta.
3 1 2 5 6 4

[22] Crowell, Jr., p. 425; Quirk and Greenbaum, p. 116.

[23] I-S Yang calls nun, un, ul the adjusted modality (pp. 232-41) and Dong-Whee Yang treats them as present, past, and future, respectively in his article "Tense In Korean Adnominal Clauses," in Papers In Korean Linguistics, ed. Chin-Woo Kim (Columbia: Hornbeam, 1978), pp. 217-26.

(5) Some a-adjectives in English

A few a-adjectives, those which begin with a-, and some other adjectives (absent, present, concerned, involved, etc.) occur after the item they modify.[24] However, they always appear before the head noun in Korean.

25. The house ablaze is next door to mine.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

pwultha nun ku jip un na ui yuhp jip i ta.
ablaze Pres the house SM I Poss next house be Dec

pwultha-nun ku-jib-un na-i yuhp-jib-i-da.
3 1 2 8 5 6 4

26. the people involved
1 2 3

kwanlyuhn toe un salam tul
involve Pass Pt person Pl

kwallyuhn-doe-n saram-dul
3 2

(6) Other Examples

A few examples show the same word order in both languages. But while English post-posed modifiers are considered adjectives, in Korean they are considered nouns.

27. (The) president elect
1 2 3

taethonglyuhng tangsuhnja
president one who is elected

taethongyuhng tangsuhnja
2 3

28. England proper
1 2

[24] Quirk and Greenbaum, p. 116, 137.

yuhngkwuk pontho
England mainland

yuhnggwuk pontho
1 2

b. Error Analysis

Assuming the pre-positive placement of a modifier in relation to its head noun, *nice something or some nice thing, and *special something or some special thing could be produced for something nice, something special, respectively. A Korean learner may have trouble with the types shown in 20 and 21 above in determining the position of the cardinal number and the ordinal number, so he would say *three chapter for both of them or *third chapter or chapter third, *First World War or *World War First and the like.

The prefixed titles with a person's surname, such as Mr., Mrs., or Miss present no problem because of their widespread use in everyday life in Korea. In the case of Madam Kim, one might use *Kim madam as a form of address. The title used for social standing shows difference from the above: it is post-posed in Korean, so he would say *Robert professor, *Lincoln President and so on. I have heard *Reagan President on T.V. when Mr. Nakasone, the Japanese Prime Minister, referred to President Reagan in the White House Press Conference. Having much similarity with Korean word order, Japanese could produce such a mistake.

The examples in (4) and (5) on pages 34, 35 show reversed word order in Korean for the English order, 'modifier + modified noun,' such as *the elected boy, *involved people

and others. Example 25 could be *The ablaze house is my next door, according to Korean structure. 27 and 28 may be produced as *the elected president, *proper England, assuming that the adjective precedes its head noun.

3. Preposed Adverb

a. Premodifying Adverb

An adverb functioning as a modifier of an adjective or another adverb usually precedes the adjective or adverb. Some of the most frequently used premodifying adverbs include very, so, almost, as, pretty, rather, even, how, only, still, too, however, quite, unusually, unbelievably, just, less, more, deeply, highly, sharply, strikingly, etc.

The order of the Korean adverbs is the same as in English.

29. That was (a) very funny film.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ku kuhs un maewu jaemi iss nun yuhnghwa i uhss ta.
the thing SM very fun exist Pres film be Pt Dec

ku-guhs-un maewu jaemi-in-nun yuhnghwa-i-uht-ta.
1 4 5 6 2

The order of very funny is the same as maewu jaemi-in-nun.

One adverb, enough, is an exception to the premodifying rule. It postmodifies adjectives. The Korean adverb equivalent to enough invariably comes before the head noun.

30. (The) soil is fertile enough.
1 2 3 4 5

thoyang i ajwu piok ha ta.
soil SM enough fertility do Dec
thoyang-i ajwu piok-ha-da.
2 5 4

b. Error Analysis

Korean learners would probably make no errors in dealing with premodifying adverbs. The only error could be found in *enough fertile, *enough high, and so forth.

4. Postposed Adverb

a. Postposed vs. Preposed Adverbs

An adverb or adverbial phrase which modifies a verb usually comes after the verb, though the post-verb position can be changed for emphasis, contrast, clarity or style. Adverbs always precede a verb in Korean and their positions before a verb are flexible.

31. Juan spent two week(s) in Boston last winter.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Juan un jinan kyuhwul Boston esuh i jwuil lul ponae
SM last winter Loc two week OM spend

uhss ta.
Pt Dec

Juan-un jinan kyuhwul Boston-esuh i-jwuir-ul
1 8 9 7 6 3 4

ponae-t-ta.
2

"If there are auxiliaries, the adverb of degree follows the first auxiliary or the subject if the first auxiliary precedes the subject"[25] in English:

32. I have frequently explained that to you.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

na nun nuh eke juhkuhs ul jajwu suhlmyuhng
I SM you Dat that Acc frequently explanation

ha ass ta.
do Pt Dec

[25] Crowell, Jr., p. 434.

na-nun ne-ge juhguhs-ul jajwu suhlmyuhng-hae-t-ta.
1 7 6 5 3 4

33. Do you sometimes visit the Jones?
1 2 3 4 5 6

nuh nun Jones ssi taek ul ittakum pangmwun ha nunya?
you SM) Mr. house OM sometimes visit do Int

nuh-nun Jones-ssi-daeg-ul ittagum pangmwun-ha-nya?
2 5, 6 3 4

b. Error Analysis

Korean-speaking English learners may put the adverb in any place in a sentence because of the flexible position in Korean. Accordingly, they may state, *Juan last winter spent two weeks in Boston, or *Juan in Boston last winter spent two weeks, etc.

Their native language not requiring an auxiliary verb to form the perfect tenses or interrogatives, Korean speakers may easily omit it. Thus, example 32 would be *I frequently explained that to you, or *I explained that to you frequently, and so on. Also, example 33 might be *You sometimes visit the Jones? or *You visit the Jones sometimes?

5. Emphatic Adverb

a. Negative Adverbs as Emphatic

Certain negative adverbs often come at the beginning of a sentence for the purpose of emphasis and are followed by split word order (auxiliary verb + subject + main verb) or inverted word order (verb + subject).[26] Those adverbs are the following: never, scarcely, rarely, hardly, seldom, etc.

[26] Crowell, Jr., p. 436.

34. Never have I heard of such a thing.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

na nun kyuhlkho kuluhn il lul tut uh po ki
I SM definitely such thing OM hear Comp see Comp

mos ha ass ta.
not do Pt Dec,

na-nun kyuhlkho kuruhn ir-ul tur-uh-bo-ji mot-hae-t-ta.
3 1 6 8 2, 4 1

We can see the Korean emphatic negative adverb kyuhlkho--mos ha corresponding to English never is split. The first part, kyuhlkho, has a fairly free position before a verb, but the second part mos ha is put only after a verb: kyuhlkho na nun--, or na nun kuluhn il lul kyuhlkho--. The position of the first part marks what is emphasized in a statement.

The word no in an introductory adverbial phrase and nor in a clause occur with split or inverted word order.[27] Unlike the English, Korean negative adverbs do not introduce a phrase or a clause and are not followed by split or inverted word order.

35. In no case do I want to argue with you.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

uhttuhn kyuhngwu eto na nun nuh wa nonjaeng ha ko
any case in I SM you with argue do Comp

sip ki ani ha ta.
want Comp not do Dec

uhttuhn kyuhngwu-edo na-nun nuh-wa nonjaeng-ha-go
1, 3 5 10 9 8 7

sip-ji an-tha.
6 2

[27] Crowell, Jr., p. 437.

36. I do not believe it, nor can you make me believe it.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

na nun ku kuhs ul mit ki to ani ha ko ne ka
I SM the thing OM believe Comp too not do Comp you SM

ku kuhs ul na eke mit ke ha ul swu to uhps ta.
the thing OM I Dat believe Comp do Fut can too not Dec

na-nun ku-guhs-ul mit-ji-do-an-kho ne-ga ku-guhs-ul
1 5 4 3 8 12

na-ege mit-kke ha-l-swu-do uhp-tta.
10 11 7, 9 6

b. Error Analysis

Without auxiliary verbs to form a perfect tense, a Korean learner of English would say *Never I heard of such a thing. He can say *Never I have heard of such a thing, presuming he uses a perfect tense form, but the beginning Korean-speaking English learner may not have become familiar enough with English to think of the inverted word order. Example 35 might be *In no case, I do not want to argue with you, because the speaker might not recognize that the adverbial no in in no case covers the whole sentence. He might think it is restricted in that adverbial phrase, so he would add another negative adverb to the main clause, resulting in a double negative construction. One could produce example 36 as *I do not believe it, and nor you can not make me believe it too. The cause of this phrasing is the same as in 35. Or he may say, I do not believe it, and you cannot make me believe it.

D. Prepositions

1. Prepositions vs. Non-preposition

Prepositions are usually followed by a prepositional complement or the object of the preposition, which may be a noun, noun phrase, or noun substitute; together they constitute a prepositional phrase. Unlike English, Korean has no prepositions. However, it has a particle which follows a noun or noun substitute that corresponds to English prepositions.

37. He came with (the) girl.
1 2 3 4 5

ku nun sonyuh wa kathi o ass ta.
he SM girl Comp with come Pt Dec

ku-nun sonyuh-wa-gachi wa-t-ta.
1 5 3 2

Word order is the same in the compound preposition as it is in a simple preposition:

38. They served rice instead of potatoes.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ku tul un kamja taesine ssalpap ul taejuhp ha ass ta.
he Pl SM potato instead of rice OM serve do Pt Dec

ku-dur-un kamja-daesine ssalbab-ul taejuhp-hae-t-ta.
1 6 4, 5 3 2

Depending on style, formal or informal, the preposition is placed before the wh word or at the end of a sentence, in which case it is sometimes called a delayed or deferred preposition.[28]

39. For whom did he paint (the) chair?
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

[28] Crowell, Jr., p. 441.

Whom (or Who) did he paint (the) chair for?
2 3 4 5 6 7 1

nwukwu lul wihae ku ka uija lul chil ha ass nunya?
who Acc for he SM chair OM painting do Pt Int

nwugwu-rul wihae ku-ga uija-rul chil-hae-n-nunya?
2 1 4 7 5 Pt

A delayed preposition is also seen in infinitive phrases:

40. Clay is fun to play with.
1 2 3 4 5 6

chalhulk un kaji ko nol ki ka jaemi iss ta.
clay SM have Comp play Comp SM fun exist Dec

chalhulg-un kaji-go nol-gi-ga jaemi-it-ta.
1 6 5 4 3 2

"In some cases such as Where are you from?, any other word order would sound silly or artificial."[29] Likewise, English prepositions either precede a head or are split, whereas the Korean equivalents invariably come after the head.

2. Error Analysis

It seems to matter little what the basic prepositional order is, because the Korean learner recognizes that prepositions come before a noun. On rare occasions, one might say *George jumped it on, in a prepositional phrase with a pronoun rather than with a noun. The delayed or deferred preposition, on the other hand, causes trouble to the Korean learner of English beyond making the right choice; he is likely to omit it altogether. Accordingly, he might say,

[29] Stageburg, p. 173.

*Who (or Whom) did he paint the chair? or *Who he painted chair? or *From where are you? He might also miss a preposition in a few structures such as relative clauses, passives, and infinitives: The job he worked (at). The lock had been tampered (with). Clay is fun to play (with).
(Brackets indicate omitted prepositions.)

E. Basic Sentence Patterns

1. Choice of Classification: Stageburg's Pattern

I will use Stageburg's nine forms,[30] which is one of the popular classifications in American English, for the basic sentence patterns. For Korean sentence patterns, Kim establishes six forms and Lee establishes four.[31] However, we can apply Stageburg's patterns for English to Korean for contrastive study if notional categories are universal to all languages. "The assumption that there are universal constraints in languages is basic to the implementation of CA."[32]

i. Pattern 1: N be Aj/N Vd[33]

41. (The) box is large.
1 2 3 4

[30] Stageburg, pp. 198-212.

[31] Min-Soo Kim, Kwukuh Mwunpuhp Non 'A Study of Korean Grammar,' (Seoul: Iljokak, 1982), p. 173; K-L Lee, p. 293.

[32] Di Pietro, p. 3.

[33] English word order precedes a slash, Korean follows it.

sangja ka khu ta.
box SM large Dec

sangja-ga khu-da.
2 4

ii. Pattern 2: N be Av/N Av be

42. (The) bunks are below.
1 2 3 4

chimtae tul i mithe iss ta.
bunk Pl SM below exist Dec

chimdae-dur-i mithe it-ta.
2 4 3

iii. Pattern 3: N^1 be N^1/N^1 N^1 be

"The superscript after the second N means that this noun has the same referent as N^1."[34]

43. My brother is (a) doctor.
1 2 3 4 5

na ui hyuhng un uisa i ta.
I Poss brother SM doctor be Dec

na-e hyuhng-un uisa-(i)-da.
1 2 5 3

iv. Pattern 4: N LV Aj/N Av LV

44. It look(s) nice.
1 2 3 4

ku kuhs i muhsisske po i nun ta.
the thing SM nicely see Pass Pres Dec

ku-ge muhsitkke po-i-n-da.
1 4 2

In this pattern, in English, the linking verb is followed by an adjective. Unlike their English counterparts, Korean

[34] Stageburg, p. 201.

complements are adverbial rather than adjectival.[35]

v. Pattern 5: N^1 LV N^1/N^1 N^1 LV

45. Alma became (the) class president.
1 2 3 4 5

Alma ka pan jang i toe uhss ta.
SM class president SM become Pt Dec

Alma-ga pan-jang-i toe-uht-ta.
1 4 5 2

vi. Pattern 6: N InV/N InV

46. (The) earth move(s) round (the) sun.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

jikwu nun thaeyang jwuwi lul tol nun ta.
earth SM sun round OM move Pres Dec

jigwu-nun thaeyang-jwuwi-rul to-n-da.
2 7 5 3

The prepositional phrase follows the verb it modifies in English, whereas it precedes the verb in Korean; the verb always comes at the end of a sentence with a sentence ender.

vii. Pattern 7: N^1 TrV N^2/N InV

The second N is a direct object of a verb. It has the same referent as the subject when it is a reflexive pronoun or a reciprocal pronoun.[36]

47. I cut myself while shaving.
1 2 3 4 5

na nun myuhnto hataka pe uhss ta.
I SM shaving while cut Pt Dec

na-nun myuhndo hadaga pe-uht-ta.
1 5 4 2

[35] Chu and Park, p. 39; cf. p. 32 and p. 52.

[36] Stageburg, p. 206.

The reflexive pronoun does not appear in Korean. Korean uses a reflexive pronoun, not for the purpose of reflexiveness, but for emphasis. Consider the following:

48. (The) matter itself is very clear.
1 2 3 4 5 6

sasil ku jache ka maewu myuhngpaek ha ta.
matter it self SM very clearness do Dec

sasil ku-jache-ga maewu myuhngbaek-ha-da.
2 3 5 6

Korean uses the Pattern of 6 for the English pattern 7 as follows. The reciprocal object becomes an adverbial phrase in Korean.

49. They fought one another.
1 2 3 4

ku tul un (suhlo) ssawu uhss ta.
ha Pl SM one another fight Pt Dec

ku-dur-un (suhro) ssawuh-t-ta.
1 3,4 2

When the second N has a referent different from the subject, both languages have the same structural content except for the order of the words.

50. He teach(es) English.
1 2 3 4

ku nun yuhnguh lul kaluchi nun ta.
he SM English OM teach Pres Dec

ku-nun yuhnguh-rul karuchi-n-da.
1 4 2

viii. Pattern 8: N^1 TrV N^2 N^3/N^1 N^2 N^3 TrV

The superscripts 1, 2, 3 indicate that each noun has a different referent; all three are separate entities.[37] The

[37] Stageburg, p. 210.

objects after the verb are called the indirect and direct object in that order.

51. (The) librarian found me (the) pamphlet.
1 2 3 4 5 6

sasuh ka na eke pamphles ul chaj a jwu uhss ta.
librarian SM I Dat pamphlet OM find Comp give Pt Dec

sasuh-ga na-ege phamphles-ul chaj-a-jwu-uht-ta.
2 4 6 3

Pattern 8 becomes 7 if we omit the indirect object: The librarian found the pamphlet.

If we place the direct object first after the verb, the indirect object may be expressed by a prepositional phrase beginning with to, for, of, upon, etc. in English.

52. He asked me (a) question. ---
1 2 3 4 5

He asked (a) question of me.

ku nun na eke jilmwun ul ha ass ta.
he SM I Dat question OM do Pt Dec

ku-nun na-ege jilmwun-ul hae-t-ta.
1 3 5 2

53. She made me (a) cap. ---
1 2 3 4 5

She made (a) cap for me.

ku nyuh nun na eke moja lul mantul uh jwu uhss ta.
he woman SM I Dat cap OM make Comp give Pt Dec

ku-nyuh-nun na-ege moja-rul mandur-uh-jwu-uht-ta.
1 3 5 2

Though the word order of the English changes with the position of the object nouns, the structure of Korean is invariable. Needless to say, Korean sentences can shift the place of direct object and indirect object with each other

to make --moja-rul na-ege, but we do not see prepositional phrases as in English. The order of words in Korean being considerably freer than English word order, it is less important than the content of the sentence unless it offers an emphatic expression. The function of the prepositional phrase in English is performed by a particle in the Korean structure, as I mentioned earlier. Therefore, Korean learners may have difficulty in creating correct English word order when the order plays a very important function. It goes without saying that the choice of the right preposition is another difficulty in addition to the position of the preposition. We will see some instances in error analysis.

ix. Pattern 9: (a) N^1 TrV N^2 N^2/N^1 N^2 N^2 Cop TrV

(b) N^1 TrV N^2 Aj/N^1 N^2 Vd TrV

The second noun or adjective after the verb is called the objective complement when it refers to the same person as does the first. Stageburg discusses other objective complements such as pronouns, adverbs, present participles, past participles, prepositional phrases and infinitive phrases.[38] However, I will restrict my representation to the noun and adjective form because they share the same position and the same function in a sentence.

54. The committee declared Isabelle to be (the) winner.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

ku wiwuhnhoe nun Isabelle i wusungja i ta ko
the committee SM SM winner be Dec Comp

[38] Stageburg, p. 212.

suhnuhn ha ass ta.
declaration do Pt Dec

ku-wiwuhnhoe-nun Isabelle-i wusungja-(i)-ra-go
1 2 4 8 6 5

suhnuhn-hae-t-ta.
3

55. She believed George to be honest.
1 2 3 4 5 6

ku nyuh nun George ka juhngjik ha ta ko mit
the woman SM SM honesty do Dec Comp believe

uhss ta.
Pt Dec

ku-nyuh-nun George-ga Juhngjik-ha-da-go mid-uht-ta.
1 3 6 4 2

The copulative 'to be' may or may not be placed between the object and objective complement in English,[39] whereas a complementizer as a connective between the second noun or adjective and the verb is needed in Korean.

Here is a summary of comparative English and Korean word order in terms of Stageburg's nine patterns:

Pattern	English	Korean
i	N be Aj	N Vd
ii	N be Av	N Av be
iii	N^1 be N^1	N^1 N^1 be
iv	N LV Aj	N Av LV
v	N^1 LV N^1	N^1 N^1 LV
vi	N InV	N InV
vii	N^1 TrV N^2	N^1 InV, N^1 N^2 TrV

[39] Stageburg, p. 212; Di Pietro, p. 82.

viii	N^1 TrV N^2 N^3	N^1 N^2 N^3 TrV
ix	N^1 TrV N^2 N^2	N^1 N^2 N^2 Cop TrV
	N^1 TrV N^2 Aj	N^1 N^2 Vd TrV

The distinctive contrast between the Korean and English structure is the position of the predicate verb. The verb in Korean always comes at the end of a sentence, whereas the verb of English follows the subject. Thus, the normal English word order of the declarative sentence is Subject - Verb or Subject - Verb - Complement and the Korean is Subject - Verb or Subject - Complement - Verb.

2. Error Analysis

The verb be would be omitted in Patterns 1, 2 and 3: *Box large, *Bunks below and *My brother doctor. It is not surprising for Pattern 1 to omit the copula where a copula and an adjective are both replaced by a single description verb. A Korean learner may make errors in Pattern 2 and 3 presumably for one of three reasons: 1) he simply follows Pattern 1, 2) he assumes the copula can be omitted after certain complements which are nouns that end in a vowel, 3) he pronounces the be verb as though it were part of the preceding word like a suffix.[40] Another point is the omission of the article. In Korean, the article is not used as in English except for the demonstrative use. Accordingly, the correct use of the English article is one of the most difficult things for Korean learners.

[40] Martin and Lee, p. 16.

The construction LV + Adjectival Complement in Pattern 4 is apt to become LV + Adverbial Complement even when the Korean ESL learner comprehends the correct English word order; or it might be Adverbial + LV in accordance with the Korean word order:)

*It look(s) nicely.

*It nicely look(s).

*It is looked nicely.

The third one might be analogized from the voice of the Korean sentence.

Here are some more examples with linking verbs and adjectival complements:

(a) The milk remained sweet for a week.

(b) The dog smells bad.

(c) His face went pale.

(d) It tastes nice.

The above sentences might be produced as follows by Korean-speaking English learners:

*(a) (The) milk remained sweetly for a week. or
(The) milk sweetly remained for a week.

*(b) (The) dog smell(s) badly. or
(The) dog badly smell(s).

*(c) His face went palely. or
His face palely went.

*(d) It taste(s) nicely. or
It nicely taste(s).

The verb for the present third person singular conjugates

in English but not in Korean. Hence;

na-nun ka-n-da. 'I go.'

ku-nun ka-n-da. 'He goes.'

na-nun --- i-da. 'I am ---.'

ku-nun --- i-da. 'He is ---.'

Putting the verb at the end of a sentence, 45 might be *Alma class president became. There happens to be no problem with basic word order itself in Pattern 6, where both languages have the same order of words. However, a wrong form could be made by omitting the article or applying the Korean word order as follows:

*Earth move round (the) sun.

*Earth round (the) sun move.

Lacking the reflexive use in Korean, 47 would be:

*I cut while shaving.

The sentences in 48-51 might turn out as follows, following Korean word order:

*(The) matter itself very clear.

*They one another fought.

*He English teach(es).

*(The) librarian me pamphlet found.

When the direct object immediately follows the verb, one may fail to include a preposition or use to uniformly for the prepositional phrase. For the former, one would think that the objective noun itself contains a dative case (me vs. na-ege 'I-dative case') or that just a change of

position of the indirect object and direct object would be all right as in Korean word order. For the latter, one might think the to would cover any prepositional slot, regarding the meaning of the Korean dative particle eke as equivalent to to. Consequently, the following ungrammatical English structures could be produced for 52 and 53:

*He question asked me.

*He asked question me.

*He asked question to me.

*She cap made me.

*She made cap me.

*She made cap to me.

The sentence, He played a dirty trick on me, could be produced incorrectly as follows:

*He played (a) dirty trick me.

*He played (a) dirty trick to me.

*He played to me (a) dirty trick.

In Pattern 9, one could put be between the object and its complement, mistakenly translating from Korean the copula between them:

*(The) committee declared Isabelle is winner.

*She believed George (is) honest.

Or one might expect the utterance to follow Korean word order:

*Committee Isabelle is winner declared.

*She George is honest believed.

Another potential error is likely to be made by using

an adverbial complement instead of an adjectival complement as presented in Pattern 4. Thus:

*She believed George (is) honestly.

F. Types of Sentences

Four types of sentences will be discussed hereafter: declarative (or statements), interrogative (or questions), imperative (or commands), and proposative sentences.[41]

Sentences are conventionally classified by the number and kinds of clauses they contain: A construction of one main clause and no subordinate clause is called a simple sentence, one containing two or more main clauses a compound sentence, and a sentence consisting of one main clause plus one or more subordinate clauses a complex sentence.[42]

I will present simple sentences first and then complex and compound sentences, but I will treat complex sentences together with simple sentences in proposatives for convenience.

1. Simple Sentence

a. Declarative Sentence

(1) Affirmative Statement

As we see in the basic nine sentence patterns, the regular order of words in an affirmative statement is roughly;

[41] H-B Lee uses a propositive (p. 2, pp. 81-6) and C. Lee in C-W Kim a proposative (p. 149).

[42] Bruce L. Liles, A Basic Grammar of Modern English (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1979), p. 160.

Subject + Verb + Complement or Object in English, and Subject + Complement or Object + Verb in Korean. Consider the following:

56. He is (a) soldier.
1 2 3 4

ku nun kwunin i ta.
he SM soldier be Dec

ku-nun kwunin-i-da.
1 4 2

57. The student is handsome.
1 2 3 4

ku haksaeng un jal saengki uhss ta.
the student SM well form Pt Dec

ku-haksaeng-un jal-saenggy-uht-ta.
1 2 4

Note that the Korean sentence in 57 employs the past tense. Koreans do not say jal-saenggi-n-da in the present tense form in this case. It seems that this is because of the literal meaning of the Korean, jal-saenggi-n 'well-formed.' One has already been a good-looking man since his birth. One can say muhsit-ta for handsome: there is no past tense used in this instance. This phenomenon shows that the choice of vocabulary in Korean may affect the tense form but not its meaning. This kind of problem probably would not arise if Korean adjective complements were not conjugated.

(2) Negative Statement

There are three patterns for negative statements in English, differing according to the structure of their positive counterparts: with verbs other than be, with be, and

with auxiliaries plus main verbs.[43]

(a) With non-be:

58. People don't like California newspapers.
1 2 3 4 5 6

58-a. salam tul i California sinmwun tul ul ani joh a
person Pl SM newspaper Pl OM not like Comp

ha nun ta.
do Pres Dec

saram-dur-i California sinmwun-dur-ul an-jo-a-ha-n-da.
1 5 6 3 4

58-b. salam tul i California sinmwun tul ul joh a ha
person Pl SM newspaper Pl OM like Comp do

ki (lul) ani ha nun ta.
Comp OM not do Pres Dec

saram-dur-i California sinmwun-dur-ul jo-a-ha-ji-(rul)
1 5 6 4

an-nun-da. (or, ani-ha-n-da)
3

English has a special form for the predicate of negative sentences with verbs other than be. The finite forms of to do are used in combination with the enclitic not: do not (don't), does not (doesn't), did not (didn't) when followed by a plain infinitive[44] other than be.

Korean declarative sentences have two types of negation. One (Type A) is composed of a negative particle ani immediately followed by a main verb. The other (Type B) is com-

[43] V. T. Ich and R. Sedlow, A Brief Contrastive Study of English and Vietnamese Syntax. CATESOL Occasional Papers, No. 2 (California Association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 1975), p. 4 (ERIC ED 126 705).

[44] Zandvoort, p. 80, 206.

posed of a main verb followed by a nominalizer ki (with a morphophonemic variant, ji) plus the negative particle ani or mos and a new verb ha 'to do, to be.'[45] The two types of Korean negation can be illustrated as follows:

Type A: ani + verb

Type B: verb - ki + ani (or mos) + ha

The two types of Korean negatives can be taken as conveying the same meaning, but there is a subtle difference that is hardly distinguished in everyday use. Consider the following:

59. (The) students don't take (the) bus.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

59-a. haksaeng tul i buhs lul ani tha nun ta.
student Pl SM bus OM not ride Pres Dec

haksaeng-dur-i buhs-rul an-tha-n-da.
2 7 4 5

59-b. haksaeng tul i buhs lul tha ki ani ha nun ta.
student Pl SM bus OM ride Comp not do Pres Dec

haksaeng-dur-i buhs-rul tha-ji-an-nun-da.
2 7 5 4

In 59-a, it may be understood that the students do not take the bus; but they may make use of other means of transportation, such as taking a bicycle or walking. By contrast, 59-b says only that the students do not take the bus. The

[45] Hyun-Oak Alan Kim, "The Role of Word Order in Syntactic Change: Sentence-Final Prominency in Korean Negation," in Proc. of the Third Annual Meeting of the Berkeley Linguistics Society, 19-92 Feb. 1977, ed. Kenneth Whistler et al. (Berkeley: Berkeley Linguistics Society, 1977), p. 670; H-B Lee, p. 170. For more about the verb ha refer to Jung-Soo Suh, Tongsa "ha"-ui mwunpuhp 'Grammar of the verb "ha",' (Seoul, Korea: Hyuhngsuhl Publisher, 1975); I-S Yang; H-B Lee.

former stresses subjective willingness, the latter stresses an objective fact. If the particle nun[46] is substituted to OM lul, both sentences indicate that the subject haksaeng tul never takes the bus as a means of transportation.

Although there is a delicate difference between the two types of Korean negation, one can accept the contentions that both types of negation are derived from a single deep structure[47] and that "on almost all occasions Type [B] negation is preferred in written forms and formal speeches, whereas Type [A] negation is far more common in casual speech situation."[48]

(b) With be: The sentences with lexical be behave exactly as when be is the auxiliary;[49] not is placed after be.

60. She is not (a) teacher.
1 2 3 4 5

60-a. ku nyuh nun suhnsaeng i ani i ta.
the woman SM teacher Comp not be Dec

ku-nyuh-nun suhnsaeng-i an-i-da.
1 5 3 2

60-b. *ku nyuh nun suhnsaeng i ki (lul) ani ha ta.
the woman SM teacher Comp Comp OM not do Dec

[46] I-S Yang treats the particle nun as a limiter, H-B Lee as an SM, and some others as Top. I prefer it as a limiter here, because its statement is restricted to the head noun buhs than anything else, but I would keep on indicating it as an SM to avoid dual criteria.

[47] H-B Lee, pp. 175-77.

[48] H-O Kim, p. 675.

[49] Quirk and Greenbaum, p. 184.

ku-nyuh-nun suhnsaeng-i-ji-(rul)-an-tha.
1 5 3

61. It is not cold.
1 2 3 4

61-a. nalssi ka ani chwup ta.
weather SM not cold Dec

nalssi-ga an-chwup-ta.
1 3 4

61-b. nalssi ka chwup ki lul (or ka) ani ha ta.
weather SM cold Comp OM SM not da Dec

nalssi-ga chwup-jji-(rul or ga)-an-tha.
1 4 3

The above examples show that the two types of Korean negation are not applicable to every kind of verb. Only Type A can be used when the copula be appears. There is no restriction when a verb other than be is employed. Thus, the grammaticalness in 61-b demonstrates that the Korean adjectives are verbal. The copula be is not contained in the surface structure and they conjugate.[50] However, English adjectives do not conjugate and need the copula be.

(c) With Auxiliary and Main Verbs: In sentences with auxiliaries and main verbs, not comes after the auxiliary and before the main verb.

62. He will not become (a) doctor.
1 2 3 4 5 6

62-a. ku nun uisa ka ani toe ul kuhs i ta.
he SM doctor SM not become Fut Comp Comp Dec

ku-nun uisa-ga an-doe-l-guhs-i-da (or an-doe-get-ta).[51]
1 6 3 4 2

[50] cf. pp. 26-7 and p. 56.

[51] J-S Suh, Kwukuh Kwumwun Non, p. 56; ul + kuhs + i → ket.

62-b. ku nun uisa ka toe ki ani ha ul kuhs i ta.
he SM doctor SM become Comp not do Fut Comp Comp Dec

ku-nun uisa-ga toe-ji an-ul-guhs-i-da.
1 6 4 3 2

The order of English negative sentences is Aux + Negation + Main Verb, and that of Korean is an(i) + Main Verb + Aux - Comp - Comp + Bf or Main Verb - Comp + an(i) + ha + Aux - Comp - Comp + Bf. Note that Korean uses the connectives kuhs and i following the auxiliary verb of future ul.

(3) Error Analysis

I will set aside affirmatives because they were treated in the basic sentence patterns.

One might say *People not like California newspapers, *Students not take (the) bus, because there is no negative auxiliary verb corresponding to do in Korean. Or he may switch people to persons relying on the literal meaning of Korean. For 60 and 61, one would produce *She not teacher, *Weather not cold, omitting be as we saw in the basic patterns. 62 might be *He will become not doctor. It seems that the Korean learner of English would take an auxiliary and a main verb together and not split them by negation.

Apart from word order, Korean-speaking English learners are apt to use double negation: *I don't know neither, *I don't have nothing, using neither, nothing instead of either, anything, respectively. This is because of the literal transfer from Korean structure.

b. Interrogative Sentence

Questions are of two kinds: verbal questions and

pronominal questions.

(1) Verbal Question

Verbal questions begin with a finite verb (usually an auxiliary or a form of to be).

(a) With Auxiliary Verb: When a sentence contains an auxiliary verb, it comes before the subject in English.

63. Can he unlock (the) door?
1 2 3 4 5

ku ka mwun ul yuhl swu iss nunya?
he SM door OM open can exist Int

ku-ga mwun-ul yuhl-swu-in-nunya?
2 5 3 1

The English question sentence shifts the order of subject plus auxiliary in statements, while the Korean function word nunya signals a question at the end of a sentence without changing the order.

(b) With be: A sentence with a verb be.

64. Is he (a) teacher?
1 2 3 4

ku nun suhnsaeng i nunya?
he SM teacher be Int

ku-nun suhnsaeng-i-nya?
2 4 1

The verb be precedes the subject to make a declarative sentence an interrogative sentence as an auxiliary verb does in sentence 63 in English. Korean is invariable except for the additional question particle nunya.

(c) With non-be. A sentence with a verb other than be.

65. Do you know him?
1 2 3 4

(nuh nun) ku lul al nunya?
you SM he OM know Int

(nuh-nun) ku-rul a-nunya?
2 4 3

English uses the interrogative auxiliary verb do as a question marker at the beginning of a sentence, whereas in Korean the function word nunya is put at the end of a sentence. Note that both English and Korean word order are the same as in the respective declarative sentences except for the auxiliary verb and the interrogative particle in each.

(2) Pronominal Question

When sentences begin with an interrogative pronoun or pronominal adverb (who, whose, whom, what, which, when, where, why, how, etc), we may call them pronominal questions.[52]

66. When is your birthday?
1 2 3 4

nuh ui saengil i uhnje i nunya?
you Poss birthday SM when be Int

nuh-ui (or ne) saengir-i uhnje-i-nya?
3 4 1 2

67. Who is that man?
1 2 3 4

juh salam i nwukwu i nunya?
that man SM who be Int

juh-saram-i nwugwu-(i)-nya?
3 4 1 2

[52] Zandvoort, p. 206.

If the verb is be, the wh word is followed by inverted word order; in other words, the verb precedes the subject: WH + be + Subject. The word order of Korean questions is consistently the same as for other statements except for a sentence final interrogative particle: Subject + WH + be + Int.

With a verb other than be, a wh word is followed by split word order:

68. Why did the boy say that?
1 2 3 4 5 6

ku sonyuhn i wae kuluhn mal ul ha ass nunya?
the boy SM why such saying OM do Pt Int

ku-sonyuhn-i wae kuruhn-mar-ul-hae-n-nunya?
3 4 1 6 5 Pt

69. Whom did you see last night?
1 2 3 4 5 6

uhje pam e (nuh nun) nwukwu lul manna ass nunya?
last night Loc you SM who OM see Pt Int

uhje-ppam-e (nuh-nun) nwugwu-rul manna-n-nunya?
5 6 3 1 4 Pt

In English, the subject follows the auxiliary verb and precedes the main verb: WH + Aux + Subject + Main Verb. Korean word order for a question is the same as in the English be verb construction in which it is the main verb as in 66 and 67: Subject + WH + Main Verb + Int.

As in declarative sentences, in Korean interrogative sentences, the verb appears at the end of the sentence with the question function word nunya; in English questions, the verb is put after the interrogative adverb or subject when there is an auxiliary verb. Korean word order is the same

whether the sentence is a question or a statement, whereas English places the interrogative adverb first in the question form.

(3) Error Analysis

One is apt to say He can unlock (the) door? in statement form for an interrogative sentence, using his native word order.

66 and 67 would be *When your birthday?, *Who that man? omitting the verb be.

Lacking an auxiliary verb corresponding to do which expresses the interrogative, negative and emphatic forms in English, Korean-speaking students are likely to omit it and arrange the utterance in statement form. Thus, 68 and 69 could be *Why the boy said that?, *Who you saw (at) last night? or *(At) last night who you saw? The preposition results from Korean literal meaning and the beginning position of an adverbial phrase is affected by the precedency of modifiers. One more sentence with an auxiliary verb will be *When movie will start? compared to When will the movie start?

c. Imperative Sentence

(i) Sentences Contrasted

In an imperative sentence the subject is normally excluded unless it is necessary to pinpoint or emphasize the subject because the subject is the person who is being ordered.

70. Go to your room!
1 2 3 4

nuh ui pang ulo ka ala!
you Poss room Loc go Imp

ne-bang-uro ka-ra!
3 4 2 1

The order of the words is the same as it is in the declarative sentence. Korean word order is the same as in other sentence types except for the sentence ender which marks this as a command.

In English please is added at the beginning or the end of a sentence when asking someone to do something rather than commanding, and in Korean jom is juxtaposed to the object just like a particle; the please takes its place rather flexibly, but the jom is fixed. Consider the following:

71. Shut (the) door, please. or Please shut (the) door.
1 2 3 4

mwun (ul) jom tat ala.
door OM please shut Imp

mwun-(ul)-jom tad-ara.
3 4 1

Negative imperatives, that is, prohibitions, usually begin with Don't which is followed by a bare infinitive.[53]

72. Don't shoot!
1 2 3

sso ki mal ala!
shoot Comp not Imp

sso-ji ma-ra!
3 2

English sentences begin with a negative auxiliary verb do and a negative adverb not, whereas the Korean negative adverb mal is accompanied by an imperative particle ala

[53] Zandvoort, p. 208.

which follows a verb with the complementizer ki. The negative elements in the declarative sentence ani + ha correspond to mal in imperatives and proposatives[54] as we see in the following:

73. Don't accept everything you see on TV as true.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

ne ka TV esuh po nun motun kuhs ul jinsil lo yuhki
you SM Loc see Pres every thing OM true as think

ki mal ala.
Comp not Imp

ne-ga TV-esuh po-nun modun-guhs-ul jinsil-lo yuhki-ji
5 8 7 6 4 10 9 3

ma-ra.
2

74. No smoking.
1 2

tampae phiwu ki mal ala.
cigarette smoke Comp not Imp

tambae phi(wu)-ji ma-ra.
2 1

A prohibition does not necessarily contain the imperative of a verb, which usually appears in the imperative sentence[55] in English.

A negative adverb and a verb are at the beginning of an English sentence, but in Korean they are in the latter part of a sentence. In general, the order of a negative adverb and a verb in English and Korean is reversed.

[54] For more on -ji mal-ala, see C. Lee in C-W Kim, p. 149.

[55] Zandvoort, pp. 207-08.

(2) Error Analysis

There seems to be no error made in simple forms of imperatives but for the omission of the article: *Shut door!

Lacking the auxiliary verb do, one would produce *No shoot! In a comparatively long structure, errors seem to be made in an attributive clause: *Don't accept as true you see everything from TV. *Don't accept from TV you see everything as true. The reason I can think of for such errors is that the Korean sentence takes relatively free word order and the modifier always precedes the head. The preposition might be chosen according to its literal meaning in Korean; choosing the right one is one of the troublesome tasks to Korean learners of English.

d. Proposative Sentence

(1) The Use of Proposative Sentence

The imperative let, used in desires and exhortations,[56] and verbs of suggestion or proposal such as suggest, propose will be treated in proposative sentences.[57]

75. Let us go!
1 2 3

75-a. (wuli ka) ka ja!
we SM go Prop

(wuri) ka-ja!
3

[56] Jesperson, p. 295.

[57] For more about the proposatives, see H-B Lee, pp. 81-6, and C. Lee in C-W Kim, p. 149.

75-b.*wuli ka ka ke ha ja!
we SM go Comp do Prop

wuri-ga ka-ge-ha-ja!
2 3

A Korean sentence ends in the proposative particle ja. The subject in parenthesis is shown for the possible form but not for the colloquial form, in which a verb with a final ending is enough. "Many Korean sentences contain nothing but a verb;"[58] and, because of this, Korean can be called a subjectless language.[59] Consider the following:

76. I've eaten.

muhk uhss ta.
eat Pt Dec

muhg-uht-ta.

Returning to our main discussion, the English sentence does not change when the object is first or third person, but the Korean sentence does. For the third person, the object is in the dative case and a causative complementizer ke and a verb ha are added after the verb. Without them the sentence would be ungrammatical, as in 77-b. For the first person it would be ungrammatical to use the complementizer ke and the verb ha at all. Compare the following with 75-a,b.

77. Let (the) porter carry (the) bags.
1 2 3 4 5 6

77-a. jimkkwun eke kapang tul lul wunpan ha ke ha ja.
porter Dat bag Pl Acc carriage do Comp do Prop

[58] Martin and Lee, p. 7.

[59] J. J. Ree, p. 138.

jimkkwun-ege kabang-dur-ul wunban-ha-ge-ha-ja.
3 6 4 1

77-b.*jimkkwun i kapang tul lul wunpan ha ja.
porter SM bag Pl OM carriage do Prop

jimkkwun-i kabang-dur-ul wunban-ha-ja.
3 6 4

As the foregoing examples show, both English and Korean word order follow their basic patterns except when the appropriate complementizer acts as a connector or when the function word reveals the mood of the verb in sentence final position.

Not all performative sentences seem to have a proposative particle as we see in the following:

78. I suggested to Han that he and I go to school.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11

78-a. na ka Han eke hakkyo e ka ja ko jean ha
I SM Dat school Loc go Prop Comp suggestion do

ass ta.
Pt Dec

nae-ga Han-ege hakkyo-e ka-ja-go jean-hae-t-ta.
1 4 3 11 10 9 5 2

78-b. na ka Han eke hakkyo e ka ul kuhs ul jean ha
I SM Dat school Loc go Fut Comp OM suggestion do

ass ta.
Pt Dec

nae-ga Han-ega hakkyo-e ka-l-guhs-ul jean-hae-t-ta.
1 4 3 11 10 9 2

78-b substitutes the proposative ja for ul kuhs. Here the lack of a proposative particle does not distort the meaning of the proposative sentence because the verb of the matrix sentence jean ha implies proposal or suggestion.

The following sentences illustrate that the propositive

ja is not always necessary, as in 75-b, where the subject is the first person.

79. I suggest that we leave early for (the) airport.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

79-a. na nun (wuli ka) konghang ulo iljjik ttuhna ul kuhs
I SM we SM airport Loc early leave Fut Comp

ul jean ha nun ta.
OM suggestion do Pres Dec

na-nun (wuri-ga) konghang-uro iljjik ttuhna-l-kuhs-ul
1 4 9 7 6 5

jean-ha-n-da.
2

79-b. na nun konghang ulo iljjik ttuhna ja ko jean
I SM airport Loc early leave Prop Comp suggestion

ha nun ta.
do Pres Dec

na-nun konghang-uro iljjik ttuhna-ja-go jean-ha-n-da.
1 9 7 6 5 3 2

(2) Error Analysis

There would be no problem with 75 and 78: the former is simple and has been correctly used since first introduced in the TL instruction; the latter has no modifier, which reveals the difference in position between Korean and English. However, the adverbial phrase which has a flexible position in Korean might produce a couple of errors in 79:

*I suggest (that) we early leave to (the) airport.

*I suggest (that) we leave to (the) airport early.

The substitution of the preposition to for for is probable, due to the literal meaning in Korean.

Example 77 could be produced as *Let carry (the) bags to

(the) porter. or *To porter let carry (the) bags. The to derives from the dative case in Korean and the reason for putting together the causative and the main verb might be inferred from the fact that Korean has no split verb phrase in general.

2. Complex and Compound Sentences

a. Sentences Contrasted

In English the main clause is normally stated first and the subordinate clause next, while in Korean the ordering is reversed. Consider the following:

80. John swam while Peter and Paul played tennis.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Peter wa Paul i juhngkwu lul ha nun tongan John un
and SM tennis OM do Pres while SM

swuyuhng ul ha ass ta.
swimming OM do Pt Dec

Peter-wa Paul-i juhngkwu-rul-ha-nun-dongan John-un
4 5 6 8 7 3 1

swuyuhng-ul-hae-t-ta.
2

The location of the English conjunction while vs. Korean tongan is also distinctive between the two languages. Another point to note is the expression of tense: Korean uses the present form in the dependent clause while the past tense in English. This phenomenon demonstrates that Korean, as a verb final language, expresses the mode or tense through the sentense final verbal suffixes in the matrix sentence but not in the subordinate sentence when they are connected by a conjunction such as tongan 'while,' juhne 'before.' That is to say,

the tense of the main verb tells the mode of the whole sentense. Here are more examples:

81. Did Bob help his father while Margaret wrote letters?
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Margaret i phyuhji lul ssu nun tongan Bob un apuhji
SM letter OM write Pres while SM father

lul towup a jwu uhss nunya?
OM help Comp give Pt Int

Margaret-i phyuhnji-rul ssu-nun-dongan Bob-un abuhji-
7 9 8 6 2 5

rul tow-a-jwu-uhn-nunya?
3 Pt

82. He ate breakfast before he went to school.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

ku nun hakkyo e ka ki juhn e achim pap ul
he SM school Loc go Comp before Comp morning meal OM

muhk uhss ta.
eat Pt Dec

ku-nun hakkyo-e ka-gi-juhn-e achim-bab-ul muhg-uht-ta.
5 8 7 6 4 3 2

We can see the subject only once in 82, where the subjects are identical. The use of both of them would make the Korean sentence awkward.

In addition, there is a tense marker which appears in a sub-clause when a conjunction like after is used or the two clauses are in different tenses. Consider the following:

83. He ate breakfast after he went to school.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

ku nun hakkyo e ka un twi e achim pap ul muhk
he SM school Loc go Pt after Comp morning meal OM eat

uhss ta.
Pt Dec

ku-nun hakkyo-e ka-n-dwi-e achim-bab-ul muhg-uht-ta.
5 8 7 6 4 3 2

84. I don't know who was busy.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

nwu ka pappu ass nun ki na nun al ki mos ha nun
who SM busy Pt, Comp Comp I SM know Comp not do Pres

ta.
Dec

nwu-ga pappa-n-nun-ji na-nun al-ji-mot-ha-n-da.
5 7,Pt 1 4 3

I will not deal further with tense, because it is within the sphere of a larger morphological or syntactical question which is beyond the scope of this thesis.

Thus, Korean-speaking English learners have problems with using an auxiliary verb, the tense of a principal verb and the order of words in consequence. The most common mistake for Korean learners of English to make in an indirect question is in the order of the subject and verb. They are apt to use the direct question form of English. Once the order of a simple question form of English is learned, it is likely to be used even in an embedded question. Here are examples:

85. Do you remember who he is?
1 2 3 4 5 6

ku ka nwukwu i nun ki (lul) kiuhk na (or ha) nunya?
he SM who be Comp Comp OM remembrance come Int

ku-ga nwugwu-i-n-ji kiuhng-na-nunya?
5 4 6 3

86. I don't know who your friend is.
1 2 3 5 6 7 8

na nun nwukwu ka nuh ui chinkwu i nun ki al
I SM who SM you Poss friend be Comp Comp know

ki mos ha nun ta.
Comp not do Pres Dec

na-nun nwu(gwu)-ga ne chingwu-i-n-ji al-ji-mot-ha-n-da.
1 5 6 7 8 4 3

It is natural not to denote the subject when it is a second person in Korean as in 85. The order of indirect questions is flexible in Korean as shown in 85 and 86; Subject + Interrogative Pronoun + be or Interrogative Pronoun + Subject + be is acceptable.

Note that the embedded clause has an indirect form in 84 and direct form in 86 in English. The difference of word order between the adjective complement and the noun complement is remarkable and is extremely troublesome to English language learners.

English may negate the principal clause; whereas Korean might negate the dependent clause in some negative sentences.

87. I don't think (that) he is (a) reliable man.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

na nun ku ka mitulmanhan salam i ani ta ko
I SM he SM reliable man be not Dec Comp

saengkak ha nun ta.
thinking do Pres Dec

na-nun gu-ga midulmanhan-saram-i ani-ra-go
1 6 9 10 7 3 5

saenggak-ha-n-da.
4

Compound English structure causes fewer difficulties than complex structure for the Korean learner because in both languages either clause may come first. Complex English sentences may cause more problems than compound sentences

because the usage rules in the two languages are different regarding when a dependent clause may be pre-posed.

88. The Patterns are poor, but they send their daughter
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

to (an) expensive private school.
10 11 12 13 14

Pattern ssi taek un kanan ha ki man kutul un
Mr. family SM poverty do Comp but they SM

ttal ul pissan salip hakkyo e ponae nun ta.
daughter OM expensive private school Loc send Pres Dec

Pattern-ssi-daeg-un kanan-ha-ji-man kudur-un ttar-ul
1, 2 4 5 6 9

pissan sarip-hakkyo-e ponae-n-da.
12 13 14 10 7

The English relative pronoun acts as a substitute for its antecedent, but Korean lacks its equivalent.[60] However, Korean has sub-clauses functioning for the English restrictive relative clause and the Korean counterpart of the English non-restrictive relative clause might be regarded not as a type of relativization but as a type of conjunction.[61] Consider the following:

89. (The) doctor who performed (the) operation was Lee.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

swuswul ul tamtang ha un uisa nun Lee i uhss ta.
operation OM perform do Pt doctor SM be Pt Dec

swuswur-ul tamdang-ha-n uisa-nun Lee-i-uht-ta.
6 4 2 8 7

90. He had four son(s), who became lawyer(s).
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

[60] Chu and Park, p. 47.

[61] I-S Yang, pp. 225-26.

ku nun ne atul i iss uhss nun te ku tul un pyuhnhosa
he SM four son SM exist Pt Comp and he Pl SM lawyer

ka toe uhss ta.
SM become Pt Dec

ku-nun ne-adur-i iss-uhn-nun-de ku-dur-un pyuhnhosa-
1 3 4 2 and they 7

ga toe-uht-ta.
6

In 89, the Korean sub-clause precedes the head noun without a relative pronoun whereas the English relative pronoun immediately follows the antecedent it modifies; the English relative clause comes after the antecedent as modifiers do. We may infer from this that there is no need for the relative pronoun in Korean because of the position in relation to the head noun, which is the antecedent of its relative pronoun in English.

In 90, the English non-restrictive relative clause begins with a comma and relative pronoun while Korean starts with a conjunction and a pronoun.

Here are some examples of relatives functioning differently: the direct object of the verb, the object of the preposition and a modifier of the subject.

91. (The) partner whom she selected was (a) bashful,
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

red-headed boy.
9 10 11

ku nyuh ka thaek ha un sangtaeja nun swujwup un
the woman SM select do Pt partner SM bashful AM

pwulk un muhli ui sonyuhn i uhss ta.
red AM head Poss boy be Pt Dec

ku-nyuh-ga thaek-ha-n sangdaeja-nun swujwub-un
4 5 2 8

pwulg-un muhri-ui sonyuhn-i-uht-ta.
9 10 11 6

92. (The) short story to which you are referring was
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

written by Faulkner.
11 12 13

ne ka mal ha ko iss nun tanphyuhn sosuhl un Faulkner
you SM reference do Comp exist Pres short story SM

e uihae ssu i uhss ta.
Comp by write Pass Pt Dec

ne-ga mal-ha-go-in-nun tanphyuhn-sosuhr-un
6 8 9 7 2 3

Faulkner-e-uihae ssu-yuht-ta.
13 12 11 10

93. (A) child whose parents are dead is called (an) orphan.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

pwumo ka jwuk un ai nun koa i ta ko pwul
parents SM die Pt child SM orphan be Dec Comp call

i nun ta.
Pass Pres Dec

pwumo-ga jwug-un ai-nun koa-ra-go pwul-i-n-da.
4 6 2 10 8 7

There are slight variations according to the function of relatives in English, whereas they are invariable in Korean.

b. Error Analysis

As stated above, Korean-speaking English learners would put the subordinate clause first and then the main-clause in that order. Another error may be made in the tense of the sub-clause and in dropping the auxiliary do.

*While Margaret write letters Bob helped father?

*Before go(es) to school he ate breakfast.

*After go to school he ate breakfast.

*Who was (or is, or zero) busy I don't know.

It is also a very possible error to substitute the direct question form for the indirect question.

*Do you remember who (is) he?

*I don't know who (is) your friend.

There is a high probability that a mistake will be made in negative sentences such as 87.

*I think (that) he (is) not (a) reliable man.

The non-restrictive relative clause in 90 could be produced as follows.

He had four sons and they became lawyers.

For the restrictive relative clause, Korean learners of English are likely to place it in the position of an attributive. In the case of the relative pronoun, the use of the proper relative pronoun as in 89, 91, 93 and the use of the one with a preposition as in 92 are other problems:

*(The) operation performed doctor was Lee.

*She selected partner was (a) bashful and red-headed boy.

*You are referring short story was written by Faulkner. or

*Short story you (are) referring was written by Faulkner.

*Parent dead child is called (an) orphan.

More difficulty lies in the omission of the relative pronoun and the omission or shift of a preposition:

94. The story you are referring to was written by him. vs.

*(The) story you (are) referring was written by him.

95. We have no house to live in. vs.

*We have no house to live.

Another notable relative pronoun is that, which may not be preceded by a preposition. Thus;

96. The people that we were talking about left. vs.

*(The) people about that we were talking left., or

*(The) people that we were talking left.

As we can see from the above examples, the English word order of relative clauses varies depending on their function; and, as a result, the variable word order troubles the Korean learners in their attempt to speak correct English.

Other problems of word order occur in so-called temporary and permanent modification.[62]

97-a. (A) man who is timid
1 2 3 4 5

sosim-ha-n saram
5 2

97-b. (A) timid man
1 2 3

sosim-ha-n saram
2 3

98-a. (A) man who is afraid
1 2 3 4 5

mwusuhwuh-ha-nun saram
5 2

98-b. *(An) afraid man
1 2 3

mwusuhwuh-ha-nun saram
2 3

An adjective that has temporary reference as in 98-a, b cannot be used attributively but predicatively and the pre-

[62] Quirk and Greenbaum, p. 377.

head position may be restricted to the one that indicates permanent status as in 97-a, b. Having premodification only as seen above, Korean-speaking English learners may produce *The ready man, instead of The man who is ready.

G. Passive Voice

1. Formation of Passive and Sentences Contrasted

English passive voice is expressed in a verbal group consisting of some form of the auxiliary be plus the past participle form of a transitive verb.

The Korean passive verb is marked by a suffix,[63] and it comes after the predicate adverb phrase, contrary to the one in the English structure.

99. (A) letter was written by him.
1 2 3 4 5 6

phyuhnji ka ku e uihae ssu i uhss ta.
letter SM he Comp by write Pass Pt Dec

phyuhnji-ga ku-e-uihae ssu-i-uht-ta.
2 6 5 4 3

The Korean passive formative í is attached to its verb. There is an objective case after the preposition by in adverbial phrases in English, whereas there is a subjective case in the Korean passive form. Korean word order in the passive is the same as in the active voice except for the use of the passive suffix and English word order in the passive

[63] Martin, p. 17.

form shows much more complexity than Korean.

In addition, "English has developed a new form with 'get' as the auxiliary verb in place of 'be.'"[64] This new form is discussed here because it is a viable form in the living language. However, it is not as acceptable as the more standard form of the passive without get.

100. The play was produced. or The play got produced.
1 2 3 4

ku yuhnkuk i yuhnchwul toe uhss ta.
the play SM produce Pass Pt Dec

ku-yuhngug-i yuhnchwul-doe-uht-ta.
1 2 4 3

At times, voice is not in accord between the two languages:

101. I am satisfied with the results.
1 2 3 4 5 6

na nun ku kyuhkkwa e manjok ha nun ta.
I SM the result Comp satisfaction do Pres Dec

na-nun ku-gyuhlgwa-e manjok-ha-n-da.
1 5 6 4 3

102. Phil was tired when he came home.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Phil un jip e o ass ul ttae pilo ha ass ta.
SM home Loc come Pt Comp when tire do Pt Dec

Phil-un jib-e wa-ss-ul-ttae piro-hae-t-ta.
1 7 6 4 3

The above sentences show that even if English has the passive form, the active construction is employed in Korean sentences. In English, the past participle is sometimes

[64] Roberts, p. 129.

used to express the state or condition of the subject without reference to an action; and this kind of passive structure does not always have a passive meaning.[65] Accordingly, Korean learners of English are open to error when they meet passive sentences with an active meaning. We may find such other patterns as; be pleased with, be moved by, be excited, be lost, be surprised (amazed, astonished, frightened) at, and the like.

In addition to a notional active[66] as we see above, the so-called notional passive is another trouble maker.

103. His play read(s) well.
1 2 3 4

ku ui hikok un manh i ilk hi nun ta.
he Poss play SM many Comp read Pass Pres Dec

ku-ui higog-un man-i ilk-i-n-da.
1 2 4 3

This English construction takes an active form; on the other hand, the Korean sentence has a passive voice. Such an English word which has an active form with passive force may be called a notional passive.[67] Compare the following sentence:

104. It won't sell.
1 2 3 4

ku kuhs un phal li ki anh kess ta.
the thing SM sell Pass Comp not Fut Dec

[65] Crowell, Jr., p. 262.

[66] I would say this term as opposed to a notional passive below in fn #67.

[67] Roberts, p. 127.

ku-guhs-un phal-li-ji an-ket-ta.
1 4 3 2

2. Error Analysis

It is very probable for Korean-speaking English learners to omit the auxiliary verb, which is absent in Korean. Thus;

*(A) letter written by him (or he).

*(The) play produced.

Needless to say, a notional active and a notional passive would be confused interchangeably.

*I satisfy with (or to) (the) results.

*Phil tired when he came home.

*His play (is) well read.

*(The) door was opened (of) itself.

*It won't be sold.

As we have seen in the preceding examples, both the notional active and the notional passive require much attention; Korean learners of English may use the active construction for the passive form or vice versa.

H. Introductory Pronouns

1. Formal or Dummy Subject

English sentences are sometimes introduced by <u>there</u> or <u>it</u> as a "dummy" or "formal" subject, but they have no counterpart in Korean.

I would like to exemplify 'Situation <u>It</u>, Impersonal <u>It</u>, and Expletive <u>There</u>' all together for convenience.

105. It snowed last night.
1 2 3 4

kan pam e nwun i o ass ta.
last night Loc snow SM come Pt Dec

kan-bam-e nwun-i wa-t-ta.
3 4 2

106. It is seven thirty now.
1 2 3 4 5

jikum ilkop si samsip pwun i ta.
now seven o'clock thirty minute be Dec

jigum ilgop-ssi samsip-pwun-i-da.
5 3 4 2

We can see the impersonal it is construed as subject of the verb only for a conventional meaningless purpose, "serving merely to satisfy our instinct for a subject before the verb."[68]

Lacking the introductory it, Korean occasionally stands on a verb (phrase) only as in 105, which shows it to be what is called a subjectless language. In lieu of expletives, Korean takes the key word as a subject:

107. It rain(s).
1 2 3

pi ka o nun ta.
rain SM come Pres Dec

pi-ga o-n-da.
2

There is no provisional or formal object in Korean and one will miss the use of it:

108. Chuck it, Charley!
1 2 3

[68] Roberts, p. 251.

Charley ya, jip uh chiwu ala!
Voc hold Comp remove Imp

Charley-ya, jib-uh-chiwuh-ra!
3 1

Situation it has no counterpart either in Korean:

109. It was Borg who started (the) trouble.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

malssuhng ul ilukhi un kuhs un Borg i uhss ta.
trouble OM start Pt Comp SM be Pt Dec

malssuhng-ul irukhi-n-guhs-un Borg-i-uht-ta.
7 5 4 3 2

Expletive or anticipatory it is used to point to a following subject noun clause, an object infinitive clause or a subject infinitive clause.

110. It is hard to believe that Bob is eight.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Bob i yuhtuhlp i ta nun kuhs un mit ki uhlyuhp ta.
SM eight be Dec Comp Comp SM believe Comp hard Dec

Bob-i yuhduhlb-i-ra-n-guhs-un mit-kki uhryuhp-tta.
7 9 8 6 5 4 3

111. I found it easy to learn English.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

yuhnguh (lul) paewu ki ka swiwup un kuhs ul al ass ta.
English OM learn Comp SM easy SM Comp OM know Pt Dec

yuhnguh paewu-gi-ga swiwu-n-guhs-ul ar-at-ta.
7 6 5 4 3 2

Like preparatory it, the formal subject there begins a sentence and the real subject comes after the verb. The Korean, on the contrary, uses the opposite word order.

112. There once lived in this house (a) very interesting
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

old man
10 11

ajwu jaemi iss nun no in i hanttae i jip
very interest exist Pres old man SM once this house

esuh sal ass ta.
Loc live Pt Dec

ajwu jaemi-in-nun no-in-i hanttae i-jib-esuh sar-at-ta.
8 9 10 11 2 5 6 4 3

2. Error Analysis

Expletives would be replaced with a real subject or object, or sentences could be rearranged to follow the Korean structure. Thus,

*Last night snowed. or Last night snow came down.

*Now (is) seven thirty.

*Rain come.

The formal object is also liable to be omitted. Consider the following:

In phrases;

to fight it out vs. *to fight out

to have it out vs. *to have out

to take it easy vs. *to take easy

After verbs;

to chuck it vs. *to chuck

to hang it vs. *to hang

to hop it vs, *to hop

The following also show that a situation it, and expletive it and there could be replaced by a real subject or object. In the process, the function word such as that is easily deleted.

*Bob (is) eight is hard to believe.

*I found to learn English (is) easy. or

*To learn English I found easy.

*(A) very interesting old man in this house once lived.

(The last two sentences are awkward, though not ungrammatical.)

I. Numerical Expressions

1. Expressions Contrasted

There are some different ways of expressing number between English and Korean. Both can use two types of construction: numerals plus head noun or numerals followed by a classifier plus the preposition of and a noun, such as two people or two head of pigs; however, Koreans prefer the former for human beings and the latter for animals or things. Here are some examples:

113-a. one person
1 2

han-saram
1 2

113-b. two people
1 2

twu-saram
1 2

113-c. many people
1 2

manun-saram (tul)
1 2 Pl

114-a. one piece
1 2

han-gae
1 2

114-b. two piece(s)
1 2

twu-gae
1 2

115-a. one o'clock
1 2

han-si
1 2

115-b. two o'clock
1 2

twu-si
1 2

116-a. one year
1 2

il-lyuhn
1 2

116-b. three hundred year(s)
1 2 3

sam-baeng-nyuhn[69]
1 2 3

Both languages have the same word order, but the one thing to note is the use of the plural form in English to indicate its plurality except the one 115-b. If we add the plural function form tul to the end of any noun like English, it sounds strange. When a modifier manun 'many' appears instead of a numeral, the plural function word may or may

[69] The Chinese cardinal numbers are used in 116-a, b and the Korean numerals in others. We can say ahop-saram 'nine people' in Korean numerals but not kwu-saram in Chinese numbers, however, sam-baek-gae 'three hundred pieces' in Chinese numbers.

not be presented, but the unsettled use of it causes Korean learners to make a mistake in English plurality. Let's examine numeral expressions for animals or things:

117-a. a tree
1 2

namwu ha-n-gurwu (or han-gurwu-ui namwu)
2 1
'a root of tree'

117-b. three tree(s)
1 2

namwu se-gurwu (or se-gurwu-ui namwu)
2 1
'three root of trees'

118-a. one pig
1 2

twaeji han-mari (or han-mari-ui twaeji)
2 1
'a head of pig'

118-b. ten pig(s)
1 2

twaeji yuhl-mari (or yuhl-mari-ui twaeji-(dul))
2 1
'ten head of pigs'

119-a. a pencil
1 2

yuhnphil han-jarwu (or han-jarwu-ui yuhnphil)
2 1
'a stick of pencil'

119-b. two pencil(s)
1 2

yuhnphil twu-jarwu (or twu-jarwu-ui yuhnphil)
2 1
'two stick of pencils'

Korean numerals follow the noun in invariable form either in the singular or the plural plus such words as kurwu, mari, jarwu, respectively which form a group that is

"a special kind of counter that we call a classifier, because it classifies nouns for counting purposes according to some common characteristic"[70]; but which is not used for human beings.

2. Error Analysis

There seems to be no production error made or rather few, if any. One might rarely say *person one, *tree ten. One mistake lies in the plural form: *two person(s), *ten pig, and the like might be said.

J. Expressions of Degree

1. Expressions Contrasted

From a formal point of view, most English adjectives and adverbs have comparative and superlative degrees.

120. The boy is taller than you.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ku ai ka nuh pota tuh khu ta.
the boy SM you than more tall Dec

ku-ai-ga nuh-boda tuh-khu-da.
1 2 7 6 5 4

121. He is the tallest of (the) three boys.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

ku ka se sonyuhn(tul) kawunte kajang khu ta.
he SM three boy Pl amid most tall Dec

ku-ga se-sonyuhn(dul) kawunde kajang-khu-da.
1 8 9 6 5 4

[70] Martin and Lee, p. 78.

122. Betty is more beautiful than Ann.
1 2 3 4 5 6

Betty ka Ann pota tuh ippu ta.
SM than more beautiful Dec

Betty-ga Ann-boda tuh-ippu-da.
1 6 5 3 4

123. Dick is the most diligent boy in (the) class.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Dick i hakkup esuh kajang kunmyuhn ha un sonyuhn i ta.
SM class Loc most diligence do AM boy be Dec

Dick-i hakkub-esuh kajang kunmyuhn-ha-n sonyuhn-i-da.
1 9 7 4 5 6 2

124. He is (a) better boy than Tom.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ku nun Tom pota tuh joh un sonyuhn i ta.
he SM than more good AM boy be Dec

ku-nun Tom-boda tuh-jo-un sonyuhn-i-da.
1 7 6 4 5 2

English degrees show more complexity than Korean. By and large, English has three kinds of degrees while Korean has only one. In Korean, the adverbs indicating the comparative or superlative degree antecede the head just like modifiers do. Regular English structures either precede (more, most) or follow (-er, -est). In addition, the irregular forms (good, better, best, bad, worse, worst, etc.) must be mastered. Another difference is that the definite article precedes the superlative form in English but not in Korean, which lacks the definite article.

2. Error Analysis

One could confuse the three kinds of degrees in English and put more, most even before the one-syllable head or -er,

-est at the end of a two or more syllable word and he may apply this error even to the irregular adjectives. Thus he would produce the following:

*more high(er), most high(est)

*more good, most good

*(more) beautifuler, (most) beautifulest

K. Some Idiomatic Expressions

In addition to basic patterns, English has many idiomatic expressions which differ from Korean structurally. They should be understood from the way of thinking and the way of expression of native speakers. Let me state some of them:

125. The coffee is on me.

coffee-nun nae-ga sa-get-ta.
SM SM buy Fut Dec

126. Take your time.

chuhnchuhnhi ha-ra.
slowly do Imp

127. The drinks are on the house.

umyoswu-nun mwuryo-i-da.
drink SM free-of-charge be Dec

If one tried to interpret the meaning of vocabulary separately he would construct his own sentence. Perception errors might be made as follows:

The coffee is placed on me.

Have your time.

There are drinks on (or in) the house.

Here are other examples which are structurally different from each other between the two languages:

128. Mother helped him with his homework.

uhmuhni-ga ku-ui swukje-rul towa-jwu-uht-ta.
mother SM his homework OM help Pt Dec

129. The ball hit him on the nose.

kong-i ku-ui kho-rul chuh-t-ta.
ball SM his nose OM hit Pt Dec

130. She slapped him on the cheek.

ku-nyuh-ga ku-ui ppyam-ul ttaeryuh-t-ta.
she SM his cheek OM slap Pt Dec

131. I will kick you in the ass.

(nae-ga) ne kwungdwungi-rul cha-buhri-get-ta.
I SM your buttocks OM kick throw away Fut Dec

We can see two distinguishing characteristics. One is that English places the person in the position of object and then the more specific target in a prepositional phrase, whereas Korean places the more specific target directly in the objective position and no prepositional phrase is needed. Another is that the preposition is variable according to the target or goal to be mentioned. Thus, Korean-speaking English learners would possibly produce such sentences as follows:

*Mother helped his homework.

The ball hit his nose.

She slapped his cheek.

I will kick your ass.

In a verb phrase, they could put the pronoun after an adverb in spite of its interim position between verb and adverb in a split phrase. Thus,

*Put back it. for Put it back.

*Turn down it. for Turn it down.

L. Some Passive and Causative Constructions

There are some English constructions which cannot be compared with Korean sentences in regular word order and they pose difficulty to Korean learners of English, therefore I would try transformational analysis with them. For the transformational approach, I quote from Radford and refer to Chomsky.[71]

The following sentence shows that Korean uses the active form for the English passive construction, though the passive form is possibly a literal but rarely used translation. Consider the following:

132. He had his hat blown off by the wind.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

132-a. ku nun (ku ui) moja lul palam e nal li uh ponae
he SM he Poss hat OM wind Comp blow Pass Comp send

uhss ta.
Pt Dec

ku-nun (ku-ui) moja-rul param-e nal-li-uh ponae-t-ta.
1 3 4 9 7 5 6

132-b. ku ui moja ka palam e nal la ka ass ta.
he Poss hat SM wind Comp blow Comp go Pt Dec

ku-ui moja-ga param-e nal-la-ga-t-ta.
3 4 9 7 5, 6

The above English sentence does not apply the passive

[71] Chomsky, Syntactic Structures.

transformational structure rule superficially as in Chomsky:

Structural analysis: NP - Aux - V - NP

Structural change: $X_1 - X_2 - X_3 - X_4 \longrightarrow$

$X_4 - X_2 + be + en - X_3 - by + X_1$[72]

But if we consider the underlying sentence structure it could be analyzed as follows:

133-a. He had his hat.

133-b. His hat was blown off by the wind.

One may argue this sentence has a split verb phrase derived from the following[73] which has a simple construction:

134. He had blown off his hat by the wind.

This sentence shows us it is an active voice, not a passive form, and is far from the original meaning. Here is another example:

135. They have their books stolen.

136. They have stolen their books.

The above two sentences are totally different in structure and in meaning and show why 132 cannot be thought of as an equivalent of 134. The reason I see the sentences, 132 and 135 are complex sentences is the same as the reason the following sentence cannot be thought of as a simple structure. Consider the following:

137. I heard my name called.

[72] Chomsky, Syntactic Structures, p. 112.

[73] I found this fact during discussion with a native English speaker who is majoring in literature.

138.*I heard called my name.

According to Radford,[74] we might postulate that 133-b derives from an abstract underlying structure which can be expressed informally as follows:

139. $\{_{\text{Comp}}$-WH$\}$- was blown off his hat by the wind

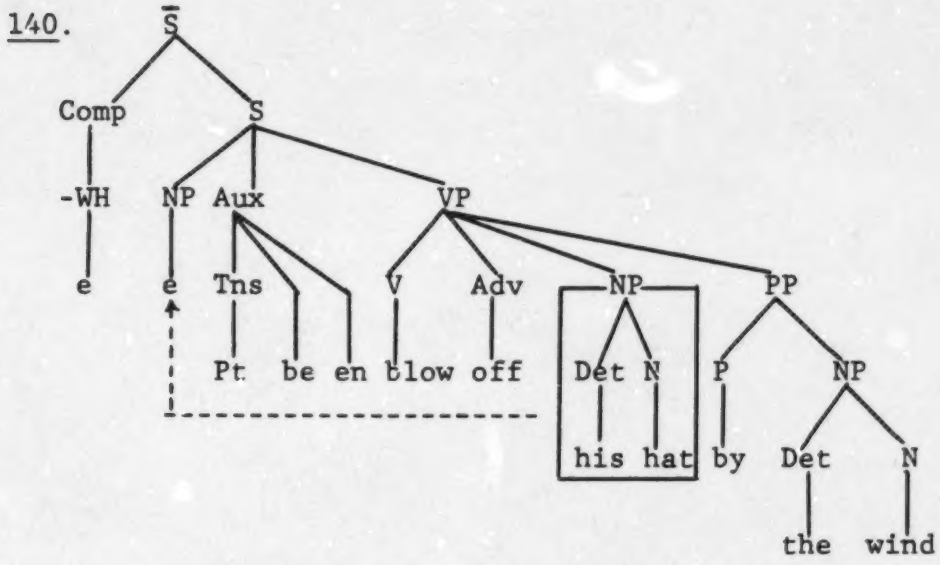
where Comp stands for the complementizer and - represents the position into which the underlined NP moves by NP-Movement and -WH is the category of Non-interrogative Complementizer under which that would be inserted in a clause which has a tense-marked verb.

The VP blown off appears in a verb phrase where it is followed by an NP his hat and a PP (an agent phrase) by the wind. That is to say, the sentence 133-b behaves for subcategorization purposes as if it were derived from an underlying structure such as 139. Thus, 139 might be drawn and labeled schematically as 140![75]

[74] Radford, pp. 180-205.

[75] For the tree diagrams, I refer to the following books in addition to Radford: Adrian Akmajian and Frank W. Heny, An Introduction to the Principles of Transformational Syntax (Cambridge: The MIT Press, 1975), p. 156, pp. 171-75; Syrell Rogovin, Modern English Sentence Structure (New York: Random House, 1964).

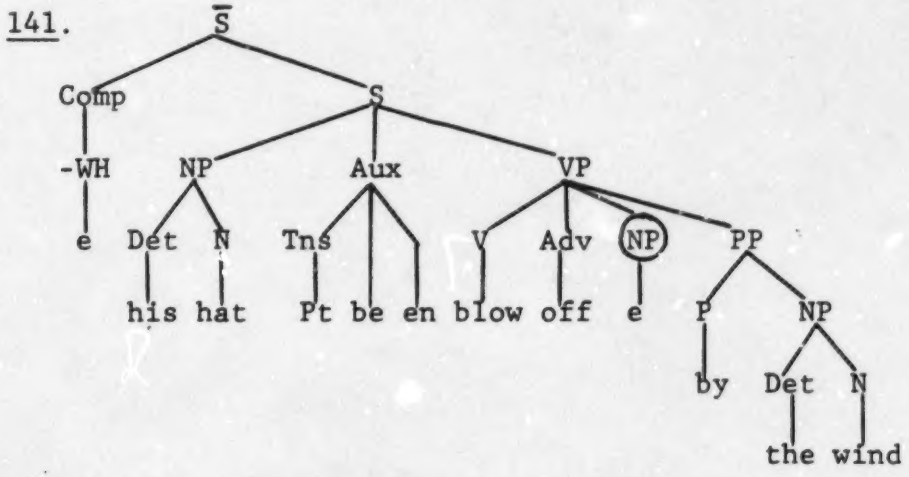
140.



where -WH complementizer indicates the fact that 140 is a statement. The empty nodes e do not contain actual lexical items (real words) in the underlying structure since they do not appear in the surface structure.

The boxed NP his hat moves into the 'empty' subject position by NP-Movement which is a substitution rule to the immediate left of was, presenting the surface structure affiliated with 133-b: His hat was blown off - by the wind. The derived structure after applying NP-Movement to 140 is:

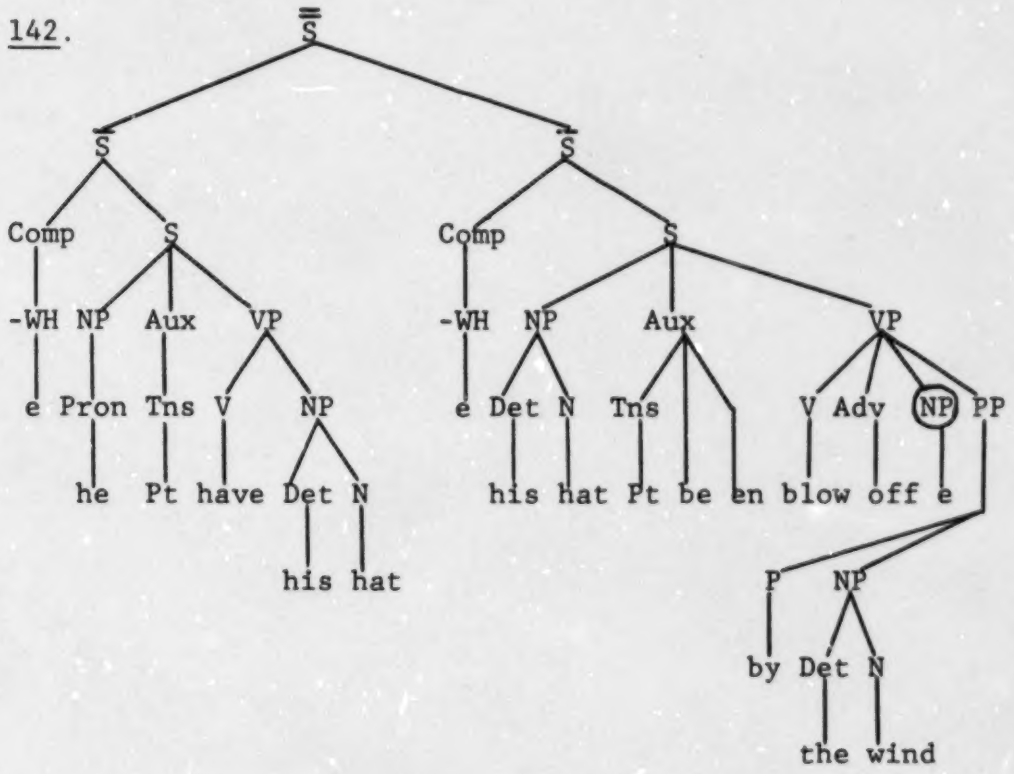
141.



The encircled NP is the empty NP-node left behind after his hat moves out of the subject position.

Now, I postulate 133-a,b have the following underlying structure as 142:

142.

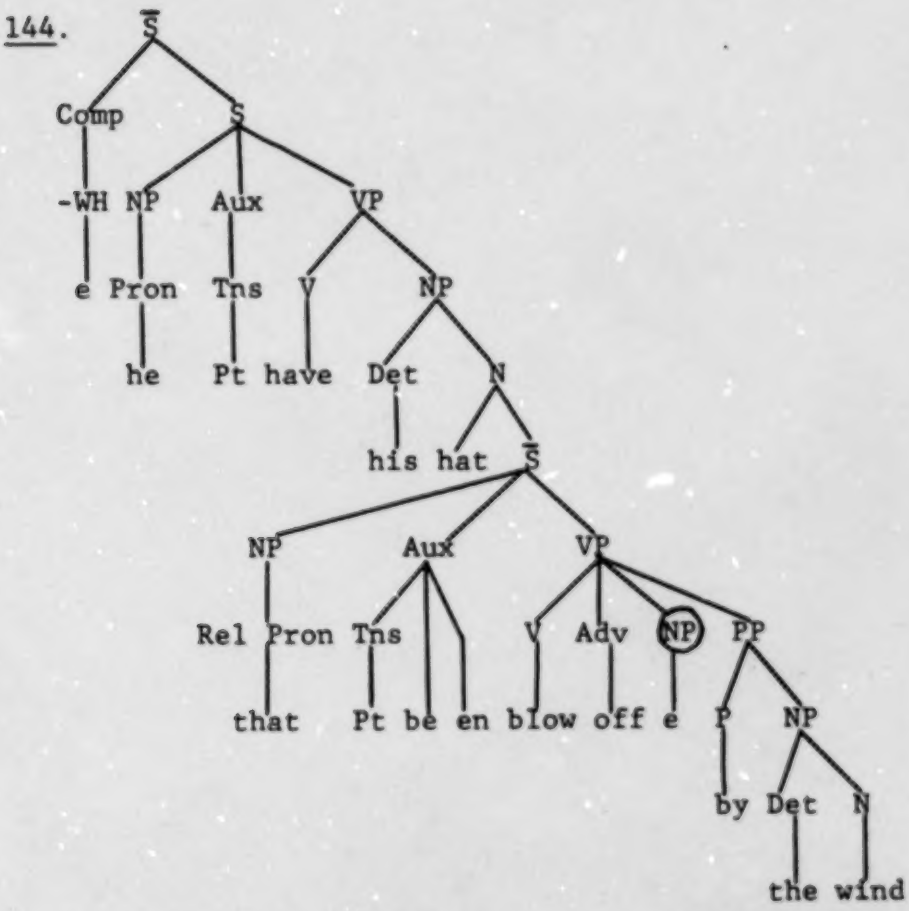


The two sentences in 142 merge into one through relativization as 143:

143: He had his hat that was blown off by the wind.

We could represent the 143 as follows:

144.



The relative phrase derives from the D-Structure:

145. [NP [NP his hat] [S̄ Comp e] [S the wind blew off that]]
= Passivization and WH-Movement →

146. [NP [NP his hat] [S̄ [Comp that] [VP was blown off by the wind]]]

147. [NP [NP his hat] [S̄ [Comp that] [Aux be] [VP blown off by the wind]]]

148. [NP [NP his hat] [S Comp e] [Aux e] [VP blown off by the wind]]

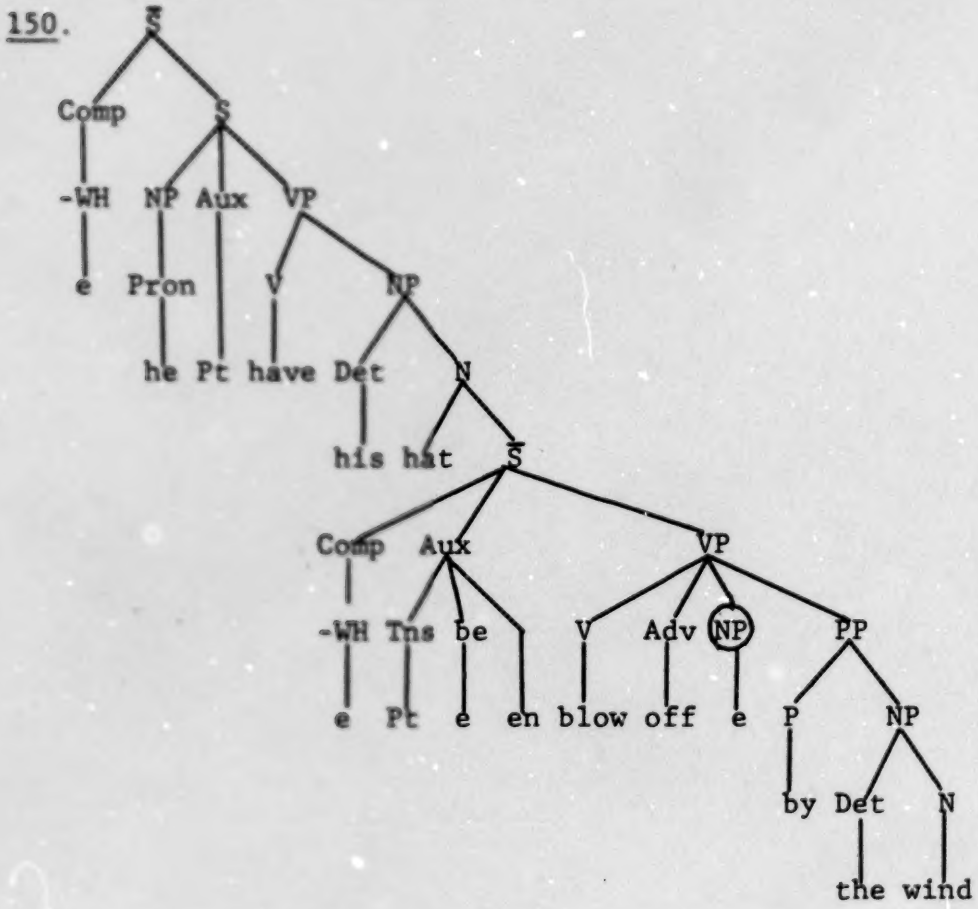
According to the WH-Deletion rule which deletes wh-phrase

in Comp[76] that will be deleted. I assume the auxiliary was is deleted with Comp that to make up blown off by the wind modifying the head noun hat. Hence, the non-wh-relative construction (both e-relatives and that-relatives considered together as non-wh-relatives)[77] is derived as 149:

149. He had his hat blown off by the wind.

And we will get the surface structure like 150:

150.



As above, we can trace the underlying structures of the

[76] Radford, p. 266.

[77] ibid., p. 259.

example sentence and that would help to understand this kind of English construction. If a Korean-speaking English learner knows the way the English sentence is put together, he can apply it to the others.

Let me cite some more causative sentences. We could infer the same structural analysis as above:

151. Mary had her car fixed.
1 2 3 4 5

151-a. Mary nun ku nyuh ui cha lul kochi ke ha ass ta.
SM the woman Poss car OM fix Caus do Pt Dec

Mary-nun ku-nyuh-ui cha-rul kochi-ge-hae-t-ta.
1 3 4 5 Caus

151-b. Mary-nun ku-nyuh-ui cha-rul kochyuh-t-ta.
1 3 4 5

152. He had his hair cut at a barbar's.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

152-a. ku nun ipalso esuh (ku ui) muhli lul kkak ke ha ass ta.
he SM barber's Loc he Poss hair OM cut Caus do Pt Dec

ku-nun ibalso-esuh (ku-ui) muhri-rul kkak-ke-hae-t-ta.
1 8 6 3 4 5 Caus

152-b. ku-nun (ibalso-esuh) (ku-ui) muhri-rul kkak-at-ta.(Act)
1 8 6 3 4 5

153. We got a photo taken.
1 2 3 4 5

153-a. wuli (tul) nun sajin ul jjik ke ha ass ta.
we Pl SM picture OM take Caus do Pt Dec

wuri-nun sajin-ul jjik-ke-hae-t-ta.
1 4 5 Caus

153-b. wuri-nun sajin-ul jjig-uht-ta. (Act)
1 4 5

In everyday use, Koreans would take the b sentences in each examples rather than the a's. There are passive con-

structions in Korean, of course; but the above examples are mostly said in active form. Consequently, they would produce the active form in English as follows:

His hat blew away with the wind.

Mary fixed her car.

*He cut his hair at the barber.

*We took a photo.

CHAPTER III

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER STUDY

Contrastive study between English and Korean sentences has been performed through mainly structural analysis and partly transformational analysis for the purpose of analyzing, discussing and explaining the similarities and the differences of word orders between the two languages that might cause interference in interlanguage. Thus, CA has been done by parallel description of the two languages.

English and Korean word order in basic sentence patterns show differences in the position of the verb. Korean is a verb-final language and the sentence-final verbal suffixes denote various attitudes of the speaker such as questions, commands and so forth.[1] To be brief, the basic orders are: S + V + O and S + O + V, respectively.

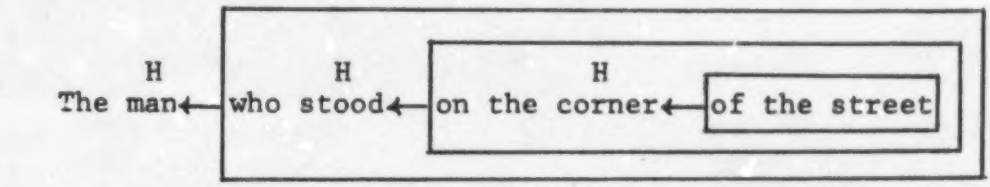
Some modifiers share the same position in both languages, but many of them appear in different locations. Owing to the relative flexibility of Korean word order, a native Korean speaker learning English as a second language might put modifiers in the wrong position, especially for a phrase or

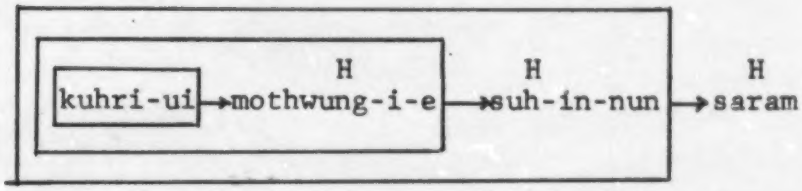
[1] Ho-Min Sohn, "Contractions As A Mechanism of Polysemic Breeding: A Device For Speaker Involvement In Korean," in Papers In Korean Linguistics, ed. Chin-Woo Kim (Columbia: Hornbeam, 1978), p. 199.

clause adverbial and when there are several prenominal modifiers of the noun head.[2]

We can show the different modes of modification between the two languages using concentric boxes.

3





where H means the head word of its modifier.

We have seen that the use of articles, which do not occur in Korean, is also a trouble spot.

Wrong word order has been found in the indirect question form.

Examples of overgeneralization and analogy have also been shown.

Consequently, Korean speakers learning English in the classroom or attempting to use it in the real world can be overheard to say the following:

*He English teach. for He teaches English.

*Tomorrow here come. for Come here tomorrow.

[2] For prenominal modifiers, see Stageburg, p. 258.

[3] Stageburg, p. 277.

*Ten dollar give me. for Give me ten dollars.

*Each two dollar. for Two dollars each.

*Two dollar I'll give you. for I'll give it to you for two dollars.

*What do you think (of) (the) next door man? for What do you think of the man next door?

*I don't know who is he. for I don't know who he is.

Comprehension of the basic differences between the word order in the two languages, where they show characteristic contrast, is vital to overcome errors. Errors can be avoided if the learner scrutinizes the word orders of the two languages and understands their structures. Cognition of differences is not enough to meet the real world. Once the student understands what causes interferences in a target language, he should practice as much as possible to reinforce his language competence and to get the better of fossilization. I think that the more time he has in real situations where he speaks to native speakers, the faster he will acquire the phatic language. Through contact with the real world, he may become aware of his errors and use this awareness to review the causes of the interferences. These bilateral efforts, the understanding of the differences between the two languages along with continuing contact with the real situation, will stimulate mastery of negative interference and competence errors, will accelerate performance ability and will increase competence in functional uses of the target language. Finally, a wide sense of linguistic

competence and performance will fulfill the purpose of the language learning.

In the meantime, learners of English should get rid of guilt-feelings about their errors such as those which exist deep in the subconscious mind of the normal American when, using Joos' terminology, he fails to keep accurate time in the clock of the English language.[4] As Richards puts it "Interpretation of errors in second language learning along the lines of errors in first language learning suggests that second language errors are not, by nature, different from those made by children learning English as a mother tongue, hence they should not be of undue concern to language teachers."[5]

I have studied the order of words in English and Korean by analyzing the surface structure of most of the basic sentence patterns and the deep structure of others. Transformational analysis of English sentences which differ in surface structure from Korean sentences may help us identify real similarities and differences. As examined here, the surface structure of a sentence which seems to deviate from the basic sentence pattern does not deviate in the deep structure as in examples 131-149.

Regarding the benefit of transformational grammar (TG)

[4] Martin Joos, The Five Clocks (New York: Harcourt, 1967), pp. 4-5.

[5] Richards in Schumann and Stenson, p. 32.

in CA, there are negative and positive theories. TG may help in theoretical investigation and not in a pedagogical situation because in a pedagogical situation the performance or the actual use of language is a prime interest.[6] The latter contention is that TG has proven to be the best of the theories now available in regard to the treatment of universals, deep and surface structure, and the generative capacity of language.[7] And TG is better for CA than any other theory of language for the reasons that it makes psychological claims: it reveals some aspects of the human mind and it gives one common theoretical vocabulary for the analysis of all langauges, so that different surface phenomena can be accounted for in a uniform way.[8]

TG, being too abstract and formal to adapt to classroom use, would not be usable as a teaching grammar; however, the insights gained by transformational analysis have been used by pedagogues in developing teaching materials.[9]

For CA of Korean and English word order, it could be desirable to adapt the transformational-generative approach to analyze both Korean and English sentences which show

[6] Sami, p. 57.

[7] Di Pietro, p. 29.

[8] Maria Lipińska, "Contrastive Analysis And The Modern Theory Of Language," in Theoretical Issues In Contrastive Linguistics, ed. Jacek Fisiak (Amsterdam: John Benjamins B.V., 1980), p. 129.

[9] John H. Schumann and Nancy Stenson in Schumann and Stenson, p. 2.

different modes of expressions in surface structure. It might provide valuable insight in the search for universal linguistic features in the underlying structures of the two languages; the search for those features is the principal purpose of transformational grammar.[10]

As the foregoing theories show, and as I have attempted to show using both approaches, structuralism is useful for the actual teaching material and transformational-generative grammar is useful for analysis of the semantics of the sentence and its function, which are neglected by structuralism. In short, the deductive method employed by the transformational school and the inductive method used by structuralists[11] are both helpful for contrastive analysis.

[10] Lipińska in Fisiak, p. 128.

[11] ibid.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Akmajian, Adrian, and Frank W. Heny. An Introduction to the Principles of Transformational Syntax. Cambridge: The MIT Press, 1975.

Chomsky, Noam. Syntactic Structures. The Hague: Mouton, 1957.

----------. Aspects Of The Theory Of Syntax. Cambridge: The M.I.T. Press, 1965.

Chu, Harold S., and Young-Hee Park. A Contrastive Analysis between Korean and English for ESL Teachers. Arlington, Va.: Arlington County Public Schools, 1978. ERIC ED 191 300.

Crane, L. Ben, et al. An Introduction to Linguistics. Boston: Little, Brown And Co., 1981.

Crowell, Thomas L. Jr. Index To Modern English. New York: McGrow-Hill, 1964.

Crystal, David. A First Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics. Boulder, Colorado: Westview, 1980.

Curme, George O. Syntax. Boston, 1931; rpt. Tokyo: Maruzen, Japanese Calendar 47.

Di Pietro, Robert J. Language Structures In Contrast. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1971.

Ferguson, Charles A. "General Introduction to The Series." to William G. Moulton. The Sounds of English and German. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1962. pp. v-vi.

Finocchiaro, Mary. English As A Second Language: From Theory To Practice. New York: Regents, 1974.

Fisiak, Jacek. "Introduction." in Theoretical Issues In Contrastive Linguistics. Ed. Jacek Fisiak. Amsterdam: John Benjamins B.V., 1980, pp. 1-4.

Fries, Charles C. American English Grammar. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1940.

----------. Teaching and Learning English As A Foreign Language. Ann Arbor: The Univ. of Michigan Press, 1945, renewed 1973 by Mrs. Charles C. Fries.

Gleason, H. A., Jr. An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics. New York: Holt, 1965.

Harris, Zellig S. Structural Linguistics. Chicago: The Univ. of Chicago Press, 1951.

Hughes, Arthur. Problems in Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis. 1980. ERIC ED 192 573.

Ich, V. T., and R. Sedlow. A Brief Contrastive Study of English and Vietnamese Syntax, CATESOL Occasional Papers, No. 2. California: California Association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 1975. ERIC ED 126 705.

Jesperson, Otto. Essentials of English Grammar. Alabama: Univ. of Alabama, 1964.

Johansson, Stig. "The Uses of Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis." English Language Teaching Journal, 29, No. 2 (Jan., 1975), pp. 246-53.

Joos, Martin. The Five Clocks. New York: Harcourt, 1967.

Kim, Hyun-Oak Alan. "The Role of Word Order in Syntactic Change: Sentence-Final Prominency in Korean Negation." in Proc. of the Third Annual Meeting of the Berkeley Linguistics Society. 19-21 Feb. 1977. Ed. Kenneth Whistler et al. Berkeley: B.L.S., 1977, pp. 670-84.

Kim, Min-soo. Kwukuh Mwunpuhp Non 'A Study of Korean Grammar.' Seoul, Korea: Iljokak, 1982.

Kwuhn, Swum-Yong. "On New Romanization." The Joong-ang Daily News (Seoul, Korea), Chicago Ed., 17 Jan. 1984, p. 3, col. 1.

Lado, Robert. Linguistics Across Cultures. Ann Arbor: The Univ. of Michigan Press, 1957.

Lee, Chungmin. "Negative Imperatives in Korean." in Papers In Korean Linguistics. Proc. of the Symposium on Korean Linguistics. 18-20 Aug. 1977. Univ. of Hawaii. Ed. Chin-Woo Kim. Columbia: Hornbeam, 1978, pp. 149-56.

Lee, Hong-Bae. A Study Of Korean Syntax: Performatives, Complementation, Negation, and Causation. Seoul, Korea: Pan Korea, 1970.

Lee, Kil-Lok. Kwukuh Mwunpuhp Yuhnkwu 'A Study of Korean Grammar.' Seoul, Korea: Il Sin Sa, 1981.

Lee, Ul-Hwan, et al. Kwukuhhak Sinkang "New Korean Lecture.' Seoul, Korea: Kae Mwun Sa, 1981.

Liles, Bruce L. A Basic Grammar of Modern English. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1979.

Lipińska, Maria. "Contrastive Analysis And The Modern Theory Of Language." in Theoretical Issues In Contrastive Linguistics. Ed. Jacek Fisiak. Amsterdam: John Benjamins B.V., 1980, pp. 127-84.

Lyons, John. Introduction To Theoretical Linguistics. London: Cambridge Univ. Press, 1968.

Martin, Samuel Elmo. Korean Morphophonemics. Special Publications of the Linguistic Society of America, 1954.

----------, et al. A Korean-English Dictionary. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 1967.

----------, and Young-Sook C. Lee. Beginning Korean. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 1969.

Patnaik, B. N. Contrastive Analysis and Its Pedagogic Implications. CIEFL Bulletin: n12 p. 15-28, 1976. ERIC ED 187 124.

Paulston, Christina Bratt, and Mary Newton Bruder. Teaching English As A Second Language: Techniques and Procedures. Cambridge: Winthrop, 1976.

Pei, Mario, and Frank Gaynor. Dictionary of Linguistics. New York: Philosophical Library, 1954.

Quirk, Randolph, and Sidney Greenbaum. A Concise Grammar of Contemporary English. New York: Harcourt, 1973.

Radford, Andrew. Transformational Syntax: A Student's Guide to Chomsky's Extended Standard Theory. London: Cambridge Univ. Press, 1981.

Ree, Joe Jung-No. Some Aspects of Korean Syntax. Diss. Indiana 1969. Ann Arbor: Univ. Microfilms, 1983.

Richards, Jack C. "Error Analysis and Second Language Strategies." in New Frontiers In Second Language Learning. Ed. John Schumann and Nancy Stenson. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1974, pp. 32-53.

----------, and Gloria P. Sampson. "The study of Learner English." in Error Analysis: Perspectives On Second Language Acquisition. Ed. Jack C. Richards. London: Longman, 1974, pp. 3-18.

Rivers, Wilga M., and Mary S. Temperley. A Practical Guide To The Teaching Of English As A Second or Foreign Language. New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1978.

Roberts, Paul. Understanding Grammar. New York: Harper & Row, 1954.

Rogers, Wendee Olivia Smith. A Survey of Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis. Thesis. Florida Atlantic 1980. Ann Arbor: Univ. Microfilms, 1983.

Rogovin, Syrell. Modern English Sentence Structure. New York: Random House, 1964.

Rosenbaum, Peter S. The Grammar of English Predicate Complement Constructions. Cambridge: The M.I.T. Press, 1967.

Sami, Anwar Mohamed. The Grammatical Theory Of Contrastive Analysis: A New Approach. Diss. Ohio State 1973. Ann Arbor: Univ. Microfilms, 1983.

Sapir, Edward. Language: An Introduction To The Study Of Speech. New York: Harcourt, 1921, renewed 1949 by Jean V. Sapir.

Sato, Paul T. "Adjectives and Copula in Korean." in Papers In Korean Linguistics. Proc. of the Symposium on Korean Linguistics. 18-20 Aug. 1977. Univ. of Hawaii. Ed. Chin-Woo Kim. Columbia: Hornbeam, 1978, pp. 185-96.

Schumann, John H., and Nancy Stenson. "Introduction." in New Frontiers In Second Language Learning. Ed. John H. Schumann and Nancy Stenson. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1974, pp. 1-6.

Selinker, Larry. "Interlanguage." in New Frontiers In Second Language Learning. Ed. John H. Schumann and Nancy Stenson. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1974, pp. 114-36.

----------. "Language Transfer." General Linguistics, 9, No. 2 (1969), pp. 67-92.

Smith, Frank, and George A. Miller. "Introduction." in The Genesis of Language: A Psycholinguistic Approach. Ed. Frank Smith and George A. Miller. Cambridge: The M.I.T. Press, 1966, pp. 1-13.

Sohn, Ho-Min. "Contractions As A Mechanism of Polysemic Breeding: A Device For Speaker Involvement In Korean." in Papers In Korean Linguistics. Proc. of the Symposium on Korean Linguistics. 18-20 Aug. 1977. Univ. of Hawaii. Ed. Chin-Woo Kim. Columbia: Hornbeam, 1978, pp. 197-205.

Stageburg, Norman C. An Introductory English Grammar. 4th ed. New York: Holt, 1981.

Stockwell, Robert P., and J. Donald Bowen. Sound Systems In Conflict: A Hierarchy Of Difficulty. Chicago: The Univ. of Chicago Press, 1965.

Suh, Jung-Soo. Tongsa "ha"-ui Mwunpuhp 'Grammar of the verb "ha".' Seoul, Korea: Hyuhngsuhl Publisher, 1975.

----------. Kwukuh Kwumwun Non Yuhnkwu 'A Study of Korean Syntax.' Seoul, Korea: Thap Publisher, 1978.

Taylor, Harvey M. "Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis in Current Language Teaching." in English and Japanese in Contrast. Ed. Harvey M. Taylor. New York: Regents, 1979, pp. 4-16.

Wardhaugh, Ronald. "The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis." in New Frontiers In Second Language Learning. Ed. John H. Schumann and Nancy Stenson. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1974, pp. 10-19.

Whitman, Ronald L. "Contrastive Analysis: Problems and Procedures." Language Learning, 20, No. 2 (Dec. 1970), pp. 191-97.

Yang, Dong-Whee. "Tense In Korean Adnominal Clauses." in Papers In Korean Linguistics. Proc. of the Symposium on Korean Linguistics. 18-20 Aug. 1977. Univ. of Hawaii. Ed. Chin-Woo Kim. Columbia: Hornbeam, 1978, pp. 217-26.

Yang, In-Seok. Korean Syntax: Case Markers, Delimiters, Complementation, And Relativization. Diss. Hawaii n.d. Seoul, Korea: Kwang Mwun Sa, 1972.

Zandvoort, R. W. A Handbook Of English Grammar. London, 1962; rpt. Tokyo, Japan: Maruzen, 1969.